

THE SCHOOL JOURNAL

NEW YORK AND CHICAGO.

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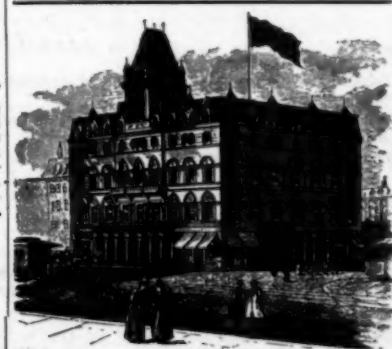
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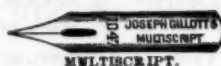
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OF

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RECEIPTS IN 1897.		
Premiums,		\$3,816,150.07
Interest and rents,		891,203.18
Total receipts,		\$4,707,353.25

DISBURSEMENTS IN 1897.		
Death claims (less \$13,227 re-insurance),	\$982,648.06	
Payments on death claims payable in installments,	7,700.00	
Matured endowments,	148,271.00	
Surplus returned to policyholders in dividends,	518,890.19	
Surrendered and canceled policies,	443,543.13	
Total payments to policyholders,	\$2,101,052.38	
Commissions, salaries, taxes, licenses and state fees, medical examinations, printing and advertising, postage and miscellaneous expenses,	874,629.01	
Taxes and expenses on real estate,	17,354.71	
Re-insurance,	41,833.60	
Profit and loss, including \$50,250.13 premiums on securities purchased,	77,010.41	
Total disbursements,	\$3,111,880.11	

ASSETS (MARKET VALUE).		
Mortgage loans on real estate, first liens,	\$7,325,862.22	
Loans secured by collateral,	400,220.00	
Loans secured by assignment of Company's policies,	1,632,268.30	
Loans to Corporations,	430,222.00	
United States Bonds,	128,250.00	
Massachusetts State bonds,	100,000.00	
City, County, Township, and other bonds,	1,656,699.00	
Railroad Bonds,	3,897,403.75	
Gas and Water bonds,	359,695.00	
Railroad and other stocks,	1,099,555.00	
Bank stocks,	66,339.50	
Real estate (including home office building),	576,636.76	
Premium notes on policies in force,	716,730.87	
Cash on hand and in banks,	1,080,287.88	
Net deferred and uncollected premiums,	545,014.87	
Interest and rents accrued,	267,461.86	
Total assets,	\$20,342,647.01	

LIABILITIES.		
Reserve, Actuaries' 4%,	\$18,271,759.00	
Claims for death losses and matured endowments in process of adjustment,	90,644.95	
Balance of installment policy death claims not yet due,	99,839.33	
Unpaid dividends, due and to become due,	116,553.05	
Premiums paid in advance,	5,557.76	
Total liabilities,	18,584,354.09	
Surplus, December 31, 1897,	\$1,758,292.92	

Number of policies issued in 1897, 9,049, insuring,	\$20,145,944.00
Number of policies in force December 31, 1897, 44,060, insuring (including reversionary additions),	\$109,045,660.00

Springfield, Mass., January 18, 1898.

The Receipts and Disbursements of The Massachusetts Mutual Life Insurance Company for the year 1897, as shown by the foregoing statement, have been carefully audited, under the supervision of the undersigned, and the securities and balances, as shown, have been personally examined by us and found to be correct.

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A Weekly Journal of Education.

Vol. LVI.

For the Week Ending January 29.

No. 5

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The business department of THE JOURNAL is on another page.

All letters relating to contributions should be addressed plainly "Editors of SCHOOL JOURNAL." All letters about subscriptions must be addressed to E. L. KELLOGG & CO. Do not put editorial and business items on the same sheet.

The Rural School Problem.*

We are sometimes told that the country school has retrograded during the last thirty years, that it does not furnish as efficient training as in the old days, and that it is slowly but steadily going from bad to worse. We may resent such allegations and deny them with more or less heat; but it is not so easy to disprove them. In fact, to the thoughtful observer, reasons appear which seem almost to make a declension necessary in the quality and effectiveness of the country schools. They are assuredly and confessedly not making progress commensurate with that of the city schools, or that of the other social institutions of the land. In other words, they are relatively, though perhaps not absolutely, retrograding.

Forty years ago I was a pupil in a district school in Rock county. After the age of 10 I attended only for a three-months' winter term in each year. Nevertheless, I obtained what I can still consider "a good common school education," for I was not taught by boys and girls. Our teachers were women and men of maturity. While not widely cultured, they knew a few things well and they knew what life means. The old school-house, still standing, was then full of pupils and full of life. Now it contains only a half dozen "kids" taught by the cheapest girl-teacher that comes along. These pupils could easily be transferred to other schools for tuition, but there is one family in the district that objects and so nothing is done. This is only a sample of what has happened to many of the country schools. These many years, the question has been reproachfully reiterated, "Why is not something done for the country schools?" "We are doing much," it is said, "for the higher education, when are we going to do something for the schools at the cross-roads?"

It is not possible, under present conditions, to man our schools with teachers of the old-time maturity. The day of the young teacher is upon us. The first problem that confronts us, therefore, is that of teacher-supply. But it is not, in itself, an unsolvable problem, nor even an unsolved one. The more vital problem is that of demand. Whenever good teachers are really in demand, the needful supply will be forthcoming. When school boards call for good teachers, and call hard enough, they will get them. This is the most prominent element in the superiority of the city

schools; they call harder for good teachers than the country schools do, and they consequently "get the best," the cream of the teaching profession.

But why is this? Are city people as a whole more deeply interested in the welfare of their children than country people are? Are they as a whole any more intelligent in educational matters? No man can safely allege this. School administration is more efficient in cities because it is handled and shaped by a small minority of the citizens. A few of the more intelligent and forceful lead and control. The uninstructed majority are more content to follow and to delegate authority. And here we touch the second great factor in the rural school problem, that of local administration in school affairs.

LOCAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

The 6,400 country school districts of Wisconsin are administered by 19,200 local officials, most of whom have only a minimum of capacity, training, or fitness for the duties devolved upon them. If the average country district contains three men or women fit for the responsibilities of school administration it is still highly improbable that their fellow citizens will put or keep them in the official relation. It is patently unthinkable that the school interests of rural Wisconsin can be wisely or effectively managed by an army of petty local officials, untrained and uncompensated. The ordinary country district, as we know it, affords little suitable material from which to select school officers; and exhibits still less wisdom in the effort at selection. This difficulty is inherent and insuperable in our minute territorial unit of school administration. And just so long as the size of this unit is limited by the length of a child's legs, or the distance which a child is able to traverse twice a day on foot, so long there can be no reasonable expectation of any perceptible betterment of the condition of the rural schools.

The practical problem of all public education, reduced to its lowest terms, is how to get good teachers into the schools and keep them there. The specific problem of the rural schools, then, reduces to this: By what means, if any, can the disadvantages arising from the existing conditions of country life, the scattered inhabitancy, the dearth of competent leaders and indisposition to be led, be most effectively counteracted so as to secure to the country child a school training more nearly on a par with that received by his city cousin.

The most fundamental and refractory element of the whole situation is the thinness of population. All other difficulties can be removed more easily than this. Our forefathers of Plymouth Rock or thereabouts, taught their successors some things too well. The small district system in school administration is democracy gone to seed. It has rolled upon the hands of those states most strongly under the New England influence a burden more hopeless than the stone of Sisyphus.

*Abstract of a paper read by Albert Sallsbury, of Whitewater, before the Wisconsin Teachers' Association.)

SLIM ATTENDANCE.

In view of figures reported to me by the county superintendents, I make bold to assert that less than one-half of the country schools in Wisconsin have an average actual attendance of twenty-five pupils, which I conceive to be the minimum attendance for effective results. What are now the causes for such a condition? One great, wide-spreading cause stands out clearly above all others. Small districts as units of school administration, made continually smaller by the effort to shorten the walking distance of pupils, and often also by petty jealousies and dissensions between families, are the bane of our rural schools.

I have discovered more than one school in the state which enroll but one pupil each. Here is the superintendent's visitation record for one of them, viz.: "No. enrolled, 1; average, 1. classification, A No. 1; methods, good; communication, none; ventilation, good; register, none; maps and charts, well supplied; teacher's wages, \$25 per month.

Within six miles of the city of Fond du Lac, a school was maintained for eight months, in the year 1895, at a cost of \$200 for teacher's wages, and but one pupil was enrolled during the entire year. And here is the showing of teachers' wages in that wealthy county. One district paid \$17 a month. (How much the teacher paid for board, the record saith not.) Six districts paid \$18 a month; eight paid \$19; fifty-two paid \$20. What sort of teaching did the children probably get in these sixty-seven districts in one county, which paid \$20 or less a month?

ENLARGEMENT OF DISTRICTS.

What, now, is the available remedy for this condition of things? There is no visible recourse but to increase the territory tributary to each feeble school, thus bringing to it greater resources and more children. In short, the most hopeful, and only hopeful, resort is consolidation.

But consolidation has a corollary. We cannot annihilate distance. We cannot put seven-league boots on the children; so we must put wheels under them. Free transportation of children to school is true economy, contributing to efficiency in the management of the common schools. The township system, if properly organized, would reduce our army of local school officials from 19,000 to one-third of the number or less, and would multiply by three, at least, the possibilities of intelligence and efficiency in the officials themselves.

I see no prospect of improvement in the rural schools except through its complete abolition. But tradition and prejudice are strong. Reorganization is not the work of a day or year. We must study, we must agitate, we must interest those men in the state who are able to weigh and judge, and who shape the policies of the commonwealth. We must have a "campaign of education" for education in the country schools.

Public Education in France.

By L. Bascan, Ecole Normale, Caen.

The union of scholastic institutions founded and controlled by the government of France is called the Université. The state does not, however, monopolize instruction and education. With respect to private schools, the state only interferes so far as is necessary, to see that the instruction is given by teachers, and in conformity with the general principles of morality and the laws of the country.

Different grades of public education.—The different needs of citizens, from an educational point of view, have made it necessary to distinguish three grades in public teaching: elementary (*primaire*), intermediate

(*secondaire*), and higher (*supérieur*) education. Elementary teaching is given in dame-schools, infant-schools, elementary schools, higher elementary schools and normal schools. Intermediate teaching is given in colleges (*collèges*) and lyceums (*lycées*) to boys whose intelligence or conditions in life enable them to receive a more liberal education. Finally, the higher instruction, which is imparted in *Facultés de lettres, de sciences, de droit et de médecine*, is for the young men who require a more advanced knowledge of special branches of learning.

Under the minister of public instruction who directs public education with the help of the superior council of public instruction, are the rectors at the head of the seventeen French *académies*, the general inspectors corresponding to the various subjects of public teaching, the *inspecteurs d'académie*, who control public teaching in every department, and lastly, the elementary inspectors who superintend public teaching in every or fraction of an *arrondissement*. The elementary inspectors are under the *inspecteurs d'académie*, these under the *recteurs*, these again, as well as the general inspectors, under the minister of public instruction.

Elementary education is one of the many blessings that France owes to the Republic. For instance, the budget of this department, which amounted to less than \$10,000 under the Restoration, is at least a thousand times more important to-day. Several laws have rendered public education free, since 1881, compulsory and secular since 1882.

LOWER SCHOOLS.

Dame-Schools.—These schools admit children of both sexes, between two and six years of age. The children, divided into two sections, are under the care of one or several assistant teachers and a *Directrice*. The teaching comprises the following subjects; Games resembling those under the kindergarten system, manual exercises, the first principles of moral education, the elements of reading, writing, spelling, ciphering. The object in view is not to teach much, but well; to inspire children with love for school and study; to give them good physical, mental, and moral habits.

Infant-Schools.—In the parishes where there is a dame-school, the infant school is the link which unites the dame-school with the elementary school. In the parishes where there is no dame-school, the infant-school takes the place of the former. In both cases its chief advantage is to prepare boys and girls for the elementary school. These boys and girls are admitted between four and seven years of age, and intrusted to schoolmistresses.

Elementary Schools.—Elementary schools receive either boys or girls, or both sexes. The lessons are given by men to boys, by women to girls. In mixed schools the teaching is ordinarily given by schoolmistresses; but schoolmasters may be authorized to manage them. Boys and girls are admitted into elementary schools from five to seven years of age, and classified under three divisions; elementary, middle, and higher, each of which may comprise one, two, or several sections.

While municipal councils are not obliged to found and keep up dame-schools and infant-schools, they are compelled by the Education Act of 1886 to establish elementary schools. The utility of such schools is acknowledged by the majority of the French people. The program includes the following subjects: (a) *Physical Education*: gymnastics for boys and girls; drill for boys only; needle-work for girls only; various manual exercises for both sexes. (b) *Intellectual Education*: reading, writing, spelling and recitation; French, language, and grammar; the history and geography of France; elementary notions of the history and geography of other nations, both ancient and mod-

ern; civic education, comprising an elementary knowledge of the laws and institutions of the country as well as the duties of citizenship; practical notions of sciences, agriculture and horticulture; drawing and music. (c) *Moral Education*: readings and familiar conversations on the duties we owe to ourselves, family, society, country, other peoples, and to God. When pupils of elementary schools are eleven years old, they may sit for an examination for a certificate of elementary studies. These examinations are held once a year throughout France, by elementary inspectors. The certificates are delivered by *inspecteurs d'académie*.

HIGHER GRADE SCHOOLS.

The objects of these schools is to give supplementary instruction to the pupils who have the certificate of elementary studies. These are sometimes required to pass an entrance examination. Then they are divided into two or three sections. They study the same subjects as in elementary schools, but with fuller details. They learn the elements of algebra, bookkeeping, common law, political economy, history of French literature, commercial geography, English or German. When these schools are founded for a commercial purpose, they are called *écoles de commerce*. When they are established for industrial ends, they are called *écoles professionnelles* or *écoles manuelles d'apprentissage*. Whatever name may be applied to them, they enable many of their pupils to pass successfully the certificate of higher elementary studies and even to enter normal schools.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Normal Schools.—It is needless to insist on the importance of normal schools or French training colleges. They are the corner stone of the whole fabric of public elementary education. With good normal schools the country is sure to have good masters, and with good masters everything is won. Formerly normal schools were almost exclusively established by Departments, exactly as elementary schools were by parishes (*communes*); to-day they are directly connected with the headquarters of public education. Candidates for admission to normal schools try the entrance examination (a) unless they are over sixteen years and under eighteen years of age on the 1st of October next following the date of the examination; (b) unless they have the elementary certificate; (c) unless they agree to teach in public schools for ten years [if that engagement is not kept, normal-school men and girls are obliged to pay the amount of all expenses occasioned by their studies and maintenance]; (d) unless they produce a medical certificate showing their physical fitness for the profession of teacher. Candidates who fail twice to pass the entrance examination will not be again examined.

The following are the subjects of the written, oral, and physical examination:—(a) *written*: writing, spelling, composition, arithmetic, drawing; (b) *oral*: reading, recitation, French grammar and language, the history and geography of France, arithmetic, elementary notions of sciences, and music; (c) *physical*: gymnastics and drill for boys, needlework and domestic economy for girls. The course of study lasts three years. As a rule, men and girls at the normal school live in the establishment in which they are educated; but day scholars may be authorized by *recteurs* to attend lectures without paying, and under exactly the same conditions as ordinary scholars.

The studies in normal schools are of four kinds:—(a) *Literary*: writing, reading and recitation; French grammar and composition; history of the French language and literature; a special study of about a dozen selected writing belonging to the last three centuries of French literature; elementary notions of English, German, Spanish, or Italian. English and

German are considered of the greatest importance. (b) *Scientific*: arithmetic, algebra and mensuration, Euclid (the eight books), trigonometry, elementary notions of book-keeping, land-measuring and leveling; physical and natural sciences; hygiene; the first principles and practical applications of agriculture and horticulture. (c) *Additional*: music, drawing, gymnastics, gardening, for both boys and girls; needlework and domestic economy, for girls only; drill; wood and ivory work, for men only. (d) *Professional*: psychology and ethics; the history of education in ancient and modern times, with reference to the best works written on teaching; practical teaching either at the normal or at the annexed school. After three years' study, men and girls go in for the *brevet supérieur* examination. This comprises papers and oral questions relating to the preceding studies, with the exception of practical teaching, for which there is a special examination called *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique* (schoolmasters's certificate), which assistant teachers of both sexes are obliged to pass in order to obtain an appointment as headmaster or headmistress in any public elementary school. The masters and mistresses who teach in normal schools must most of them have been trained either at St. Cloud higher normal school (men) or at Fontenay-aux-Roses higher normal school (women). They may elect not to live in the establishment in which they teach.

The administration of a normal school comprises a *directeur* or a *directrice*, a secretary or lady superintendent, an administrative council. *Directeurs* and *directrices* possess a special certificate. *Directeurs* are generally selected from among the best elementary inspectors. In all cases they are appointed, as also are *économes*, masters, and mistresses, by the minister of public instruction. *Directeurs* and *directrices* teach psychology, ethics, the history of educational philosophy and the history of education. They also control the work of masters and mistresses, and the financial operations of *économes*, as well as the professional training of the men and girls in annexed schools. *Directeurs* are paid from \$500 to \$700 a year, and *directrices* from 3,000 to 5,000 francs a year.

Economes organize all the domestic arrangements of the normal school—food, drink, servants, and so on. In normal schools, containing more than sixty scholars, *économes* give their whole time to their special duties; but in normal schools containing less than sixty they give lectures on mathematics and book-keeping. Masters and mistresses give eighteen or twenty hours' teaching a week, according to the number of their scholars, *économes* only ten hours. All the officials have a right to a retiring pension at least equal to half their past average salary, but, except in extraordinary cases, only after twenty-five years' service, and when they are at least fifty-five years' old. The administrative council controls the management of the normal school revenues, the choice of servants, other details of the same kind; and every year in July it draws up a report on the financial condition of the establishment.

In all the normal schools throughout France the discipline is determined by the self-same regulations. All are free on Sundays and legal *fête*-days. However, *directeurs* and *directrices* are allowed to give an occasional holiday if they think it necessary. They can also suppress ordinary holidays for those whose work has not been satisfactory. There is no other punishment in normal schools. By their teaching and their example, masters and mistresses constantly appeal to the conscience and the sense of duty of their pupils, and their call is generally heard; men and girls are ordinarily obedient, of good will, and devoted to their work.

Condensed for *The School Journal* from the "Educational Times," London.

School Life in France.

According to Max O'Rell, whose "Reminiscences of School Life in France" appeared in "The Youth's Companion" a short time since, the getting of an education means plenty of hard work to the French youth. In the summer, says the writer, the French school boy rises at five in the morning; in the winter, at six— or, rather, he is supposed to do so. The first bell rings at five o'clock; a second, at twenty-five minutes past five, and a third at half past five enjoins him to leave the dormitory and go to the class-room. Of course he rises at twenty-five minutes past, and is quite ready at half past five to go down to the study-room.

There, under the supervision of an usher, called *pion*, he prepares his lessons for the masters till five minutes before eight. The three meals of the day bear the names of breakfast, dinner, and supper. Breakfast, which comes at eight, consists of a plate of soup and a large piece of bread. At half past eight they have to be in their class-rooms. The class lasts two hours, after which they return to the study-room, to prepare, until twelve, for the afternoon class.

From twelve to one they dine and play. Both these words would convey to an American or an English mind a meaning that, unfortunately, they do not convey either to the mind or to the stomach of a French school boy. The dinner consists generally of one help of boiled beef and vegetables. Fridays, when the fare consisted of haricot-beans or lentils, and the boys were allowed "to ask for more" was the red-letter day. The dish was sauce mainly, with some haricots or lentils swimming about, *ravi nantes in gurgite vasto*: but they could have as much as they wished, and that to boys of fourteen means much.

Bread, in French *lycees*, is *ad libitum*. When a boy has finished his piece, he holds up his hand, as a sign that he is ready for another. A man, holding a basket of cut loaves, is stationed in such a position as will allow him to fill the empty hands as fast as they are put up. He flings, the boys catch. It is quite a dexterous game. If the boy misses the piece that was intended for him, his neighbor frequently catches and pockets it. The drink is humorously called *abondance*, and is made up of a tablespoonful of wine in a decanter of water.

Recreation has to take place in a large yard, surrounded by high walls, very much like a prison walk. Not a tree, not a blade of grass to be seen—a mere graveled yard, bare and uninviting. There the boys walk, two by two, or in groups, the big ones talking politics, or discussing scientific problems or questions of literature and philosophy, the little ones indulging in a game of top or marbles in one corner of the ground.

At one o'clock all have to be in their places in the study-room until two, when it is time to go to the afternoon class, which lasts till four o'clock. On leaving the professors, they receive a piece of bread each, which they are allowed to eat in the play-yard with whatever relish they may possess or buy of the doorkeeper. They play till five, when they return to the study-room to prepare lessons for the following day.

At eight o'clock supper is ready. To this, as to all the other meals, they go two by two, after having previously formed into ranks in the playground. The supper consists of stew, boiled beef, or two sorts of vegetables. Sometimes an apple or a few cherries, according to the season, brighten the not very festive board. Cherries are a most popular dessert; after refreshing the inner boy, they provided him with missiles, which can be turned to good account on the spot, whenever the usher's back is turned.

The French school boy gets a holiday on Thursdays; that is to say, no class is held; but he has to be in the study-room morning and evening. In the afternoon he goes for a walk. Explanation is needed as to what is meant by the walk. The school is divided into big, middle, and small boys. Each division is formed into ranks, and thus, two by two, accompanied by ushers, they march through the streets. Silence is compulsory while in town, and the ranks are not broken until the little battalions have reached the country. There they may play, walk, or sit on the grass for an hour or two, when the ranks are formed again, and they are marched back.

The French school boy works much more and plays much less than American and British school boys. He gets fewer holidays—two months in the summer, two or three days at the beginning of the year, and a week at Easter.

Shut up in the walls of his prison, the boy is prone to compare himself to the classes of society which he considers persecuted, showing his sympathy by adopting the ideas of an ignorant democracy, and often by expressing them in language that would be repugnant to his dignity if he were free. Sometimes, when a privilege that the boys look upon as their right is taken away, there is a rebellion. The boys retire to the dormitory and protest "vi et armis." Dictionaries, inkstands, shoes are used as missiles to be used in the battle for liberty. Hunger usually ends the struggle. The misguided ones are received back, to be submitted to stricter discipline than ever, the heroic instigators are expelled from the school, and for a boy to be expelled from a French *lycée* is no light matter, for the doors of all the others are closed to him, and the faculties may even refuse to permit him to stand as a candidate for the university degrees.

His prospects in life may be ruined forever; for in France a man who is neither bachelor of arts or of science cannot study medicine or law; he cannot enter the military schools,

or be candidate for any government post. Business is the only opening left to him.

The classes in French *lycees* contain from eighty to a hundred boys. They are generally composed of some ten pupils of extraordinary capacity, of ten more who follow the lectures with profit, of twenty others who can just manage to keep in the race, of twenty more who get on anyhow, and of twenty or thirty neglected, forgotten boys who learn nothing.

Each class has to go through a course prescribed by the minister of public instruction, and no master has a right to read even the passage of a book to his pupils that is not down on the program. A professor who carried his interest in his students the length of introducing a new book in his class would probably see his zeal rewarded with a professorship in the college of some little out-of-the-way town perhaps in Algeria.

The head-master of a French *lycée* is called *Proviseur*. He does not teach. He represents high authority, the minister of public instruction; that is to say, the eternal government. He stands in the middle of the quadrangle as the boys proceed to their respective class-rooms. All take off their caps as they pass before the mighty potentate, not ten or twenty of whom he knows.

The work and discipline of the French schools is under the supervision of a censor, who is the real headmaster. The masters, all of whom are ex-scholars of the celebrated *Ecole Normale Supérieure*, or of the *Ecole Polytechnique*, are eminent men, but they never mix with the boys out of school hours. They are respected by their pupils, but they are not, as in England, their friends, and often their playmates.

The ushers, or *pions*, are mere watch-dogs, looking over the boys while they prepare their lessons in the study-room. They see that they behave properly in the study, refectory, dormitory, or out walking. They are often ignorant, ill-bred, outcasts, whom the boys despise.

In a Brussels Girls' School.

The municipal schools of Brussels are under the control of a senator. One of the best of the communal girls' schools is that under Madame Nyns-Lagye. The school is capable of taking from 600 to 700 girls. It costs the city 80,000 francs a year, 60,000 of which goes toward salaries. The directrice has rooms in the school (when this is not the case, an allowance is made of 1,500 francs in lieu of apartments, fuel, and light).

The city allows the directrice 1,600 francs a year for needle-work; the garments, when made, are given to the children.

For a class library each child at the beginning of a term brought a story-book, covered and labeled. These books were lent, so that each child read thirty-six books in return for the one she supplied.

The pupil-teacher question seemed to be satisfactorily settled. The girls go to the normal school until they are eighteen. They then become third class teachers at a salary of 1,400 francs a year for five years. At the end of this time they have an examination; if this is passed satisfactorily they rise steadily by about 75 francs a year up to 2,000 francs for another five years. There is then another practical examination; the jury come to the school, and the teacher has to give any lesson on her routine that may be chosen. Her note-books, and those of the children are examined. The successful passing of this makes a teacher a first-class institutrice. As such she may have full charge of a large continuation school at a good salary. In addition, 300 francs a year is given to a teacher in charge of the dinner girls, and another 300 francs to the one who has charge of the girls who may stay in until 6 P. M. to do their home lessons.

The work in house-wifery struck one as being particularly well done. A class of twenty-five girls goes for a whole week; during this the children are divided into sections, one of which sees to the cookery, one cleans, one mends, one has lessons on the qualities and properties of food, and another section washes clothes. (The two hours our girls spend in the cookery kitchen is not long enough to see the finish of work begun—for example, a beef-steak pudding should be boiled three hours; there is clearly not time for this.) Another very practical point was that the children themselves go out and buy the food, and are made responsible for choosing well, seeing that the weight is correct, and also that only the market price is paid.

The "professional schools," too, are under systematic control. When children have finished their ordinary course, they may attend free, if poor, or else at a very small charge, schools where they thoroughly learn those trades they take up, *e. g.*, dressmaking, lingerie, millinery, etc.

Many of the convents also have these schools; that of Saint Marie has a very interesting one, where girls are taught fine lace work, drawn threadwork, embroidery. As soon as the girls can be trusted, *i. e.*, in from six months to a year, they are paid at the rate of 25 francs a month and upwards. While they were at their work they all looked very happy and bright. To keep girls out of the streets the sisters have a playroom, where the children may do what they like under supervision. On fete days they have chocolate and cakes.

The Belgians are very fond of music, and one good point especially for men, is that they may learn what instrument they please free on Sunday mornings.

Classes are also held for workmen to gain knowledge and improve themselves, *e. g.*, lessons are given on the graining of wood so that the painting may be better and more artistically done.—"The Schoolmaster."

The Technical Education of Girls.

By Miss A. J. Cooper.*

The life of women has undergone many changes in the course of this century, and the way in which women are learning to play their part in the busy public life of the present day cannot be ignored in treating of any part of girls' education. The various callings that women follow need preparation just as much as the callings which men follow, and, where a woman takes up the same calling as a man, she needs, with perhaps some modifications, pretty much the same kind of training. But, where she takes up callings that men do not take up, she wants special training of her own, and in the home life the woman has her part to play as mistress of the household, ruler of its every-day affairs, the head of a family, taking care that each individual should have full justice done to his needs, and should obtain the fullest value of the home resources. For a woman of wealth and leisure, the direction of domestic affairs needs perhaps very little special training in cookery and so forth, but, for the large majority of women, who have to make the most of more or less limited means, it is a very important point that they should be fully acquainted with the possibilities that exist of making those small means as valuable as they can, in promoting the health and comfort of the family.

There is always a kind of administrative work to be done in the case of every household, and the woman at the head of the household is the natural administrator. The very defects that are sometimes pointed out as woman's weaknesses seem to be largely due to the fact that she has been this administrator through so many generations, and has had to apply herself to these details with very little training for such work. If such training is to be given in any school at all, it must be treated so that it yields its maximum educational value, and to do this we must not admit our domestic crafts on sufferance, but we must give them the first place in our consideration, and then consider what other branches of knowledge naturally group themselves around these handicrafts, and choose carefully among them, and arrange them in due sequence and subordination. We must proceed to build up a time-table where the different parts are thoroughly welded together, and all the subjects are made to give mind training, as well as hand training, whether the subject be chemistry or cookery, needlework or drawing, or any other allied study.

How would such a curriculum develop if we started on such a plan? We should have first to take the important subjects of cookery, laundry work, and all the various informations and crafts that may be summed up in the terms housewifery and domestic economy, in which I mean to include all the various ways in which a woman can minister to the well-being of her family in health and in sickness.

All these subjects have a scientific side to them, chemistry and physics and physiology being the most important. The scientific subjects must be made real to our pupils by being shown in their actual bearing upon their handicrafts, and the handicrafts on their side must be raised out of the ordinary mechanical routine by being clearly understood as expressions of scientific fact and scientific law. In this way the girl who studies cookery studies it from a new point of view. She is an investigator; she is a student of her subject, as well as a person learning a most useful craft. Her chemistry knowledge at the same time is likely to be much more clearly remembered, and much more of an interest to her in after-school life, because she realizes that it is the study of principles which affect her every-day experiences, and as she carries on her occupations she is reminded, not only of how she learned to do a thing, but why the doing must follow certain lines if it is to succeed; and she is, moreover, furnished with possibilities of meeting the emergencies of life—new situations, new difficulties—as they arise, because she knows not only what to do, but how to do it, and why it should be done. Such teaching of cookery is eminently educational. It is that connection of knowing and doing, of knowledge and faculty, which we recognize as an important educational principle; and, though the subject of cookery may seem a humble one, I believe that the very fact that it is an every-day, common thing will impress the importance both of science and handicraft upon the pupil as no mere lecture-room teaching or mere laboratory demonstration can do. If kitchen and laboratory are seen to furnish two complementary sides of the ideas on which the girl is employed in both, each will be more valuable as a training place, and the results are likely to be much more permanent. The cookery teaching that has gone on for many years has partly had this in view, and attempts have been made to introduce the scientific aspect of the subject into the teaching, but it has not yet gone far enough, and it must be made really scientific

in procedure, as well as in knowledge of facts, before it can be as valuable an instrument of education as it can be made. I think this might have been seen long ago, but still there is so much practical value in a knowledge of cookery that good has been done wherever it has been taught and however it has been taught, if it has really left the knowledge behind it as a permanent possession.

The subject of needlework has been very much more fully dealt with than that of cookery. It is an easier subject to organize, and it has been organized into a very complete system for a considerable time. A good many people think that perhaps it has been too much systematized, and that too much time is given to the cultivation of a mere handicraft. This may be so, but I think in these days any handicraft that is taught thoroughly is of value to the worker. We are so much given to rely upon machine work and to forget the value of hand work that it is important to have a subject which can be thoroughly taught with a good deal of detail and a good deal of care in small matters, so that we may realize the difference between the handicraft and its machine representative.

The decorative side of needlework seems likely to remain as a pure handicraft, even if other parts of the subject might be relegated to machinery. In all decorative work, in spite of what mechanical processes have done to give art products to the world, the value of the direct work of the artist is recognized, and, in these days of constantly multiplying mechanical devices, the individual *cachet* which the hand worker gives to what he produces is appreciated at its full value.

This brings us to the point of view from which we may study the connection which needlecraft has with the subjects of the school curriculum. Needlecraft has to consider the various materials employed to produce its effects, and their adaptability to the purpose which the needle has to serve, and it has, moreover, to take into account the questions of form and color, which bring us to the work of the drawing classes. The making and cutting out of patterns is a kind of drawing to scale, with all that that implies of accuracy and deftness of manipulation. The study of form and color may be used as a means of educating taste in dress; simple elementary design may have its application in some product of the needle; and, if we take the history of costume as one side of the history of the development of civilization, we ally with our handicraft a book-subject of considerable culture value. The history of needlework and that of costume have hitherto been considered studies for the connoisseur, but they are an interesting part of the history of human civilization, and to the woman who is constantly using the needle, which is probably one of the oldest tools in the world, it is a source of great interest to have the connection between her daily occupation and the general life of the world brought out.

Needlework, then, that is taught on the most approved system that the needleworkers can find may be further developed into a subject of real education by having its connection with art and history emphasized, and emphasized in such a way that, while the craft is cared for, it is raised from the position of mechanical drudgery to take its place in enlarging the mental outlook and cultivating and refining the ideas of beauty in life.

So much for the principal women's handicrafts, and the subjects that they bring in their train into the school curriculum. The subjects that I should add are English, including literature and composition, history, geography, arithmetic, and possibly some further mathematical work, class-singing, and some form of drill or physical training. Every one of these subjects must be carefully treated, so that the utmost is made of it from the point of view of educational value. Arithmetic must be made practical, and include the simple keeping of accounts and expertness in any calculation that belongs to any subject of every-day life. It must also be scientifically treated so that it gives the accurate training that mathematical study is so well adapted to supply. History should connect itself with the every-day life of the community we live in. It should take care that the pupils know something of what rates and taxes are, as well as such facts as are generally given in an elementary history of the country. The study of geography has been so much improved of late years that I need scarcely insist on its value. The teaching of English should aim at giving the pupils a command of their mother tongue, both for speaking and for writing, in such a way as to help their power of expression in every-day life. It should further deal with literature in such a manner as to educate a taste for some of the fine literature of the mother tongue, and in this way supply a valuable resource for the leisure time of after-school life.

There are girls to whom the every-day affairs of life appeal more strongly than books and ordinary school-room routine, and for such it is possible we may find that a modified curriculum, somewhat on the lines of what I have this evening sketched, might prove a means of fuller education than what they at present receive.

It is extremely satisfactory to find how keen all those who are concerned with the technical education of girls are to make their work as thorough as possible, and experiments that are being made in various directions will be watched with interest by all who care for the future of this kind of education.

*Condensed from a paper read at the December meeting of the College of Preceptors, London.

School Journeys.

We have heard a good deal of late in reference to "school journeys;" but, before we conclude that everything educational made in Germany is necessarily good for this country, and ought to be transplanted with the least possible delay, it may be well to consider what is the avowed object of this institution in Germany, and whether there are factors in our school life which answer the same purpose.

With regard to the study of geography, whether physical, commercial, or political, there can be no question of the value of these excursions, whether long ones to distant towns or short ones in the neighborhood of the school itself.

The school journey has also the advantage of bringing the children into more actual touch with the physical world, and also in testing and strengthening their powers of endurance. A fortnight's tour as arranged by a German schoolmaster is no bad apprenticeship for compulsory military service; for these journeys are no child's play. For months before hand there is preparation in the class-room; history, geography, literature, commerce, etc., are studied in reference to the part of the country to be visited. And there is physical preparation, too, in the playground. The actual carrying out of the program entails much hard work. Long distances are covered, note-books are ever in hand, and calculations and criticism are "written up" each day after the walk is over. No luxuries of food or bed are permitted.

It must be freely allowed that what the German schoolmaster does he does thoroughly. To some extent, and no doubt in a less complete way, we have the same kind of thing in this country. There are masters who take a class out botanizing, and such an expedition is no doubt, connected with the school work. Geology, again, is, by most teachers, advanced by geological excursions. Natural history societies are common in schools, and do great good.

But the main reason why the school journey, as understood in Germany, could not, under present conditions, be naturalized among us is this. Deny it as we will, it is nevertheless true that the teacher wants to get away from his boys as soon as he can.

He wants to forget that he is a teacher, and to become for an interval an ordinary member of society. Of course, this is the inevitable result of the artificial life that many teachers lead. While this feeling remains it would be hopeless to ask a man to lead twenty or forty boys along public roads, into railway trains or public museums. There is no work more detested than the compulsory walk and church parade. This *mauvaise honte* appears to be deeply rooted, and while it is so we shall never find a large number of men to follow the German lead. There are some, however, who do it. Holiday walking tours are not unknown, and the idea of the public school summer camps is not very dissimilar.

Still, while admitting the impossibility of transplanting this foreign plant, we may encourage the growth of a similar home production. Visits to museums of a picked group of classical boys; gasworks and the like for the modern-side boy; visits to factories and picture galleries; half-holiday excursions to find some stones or plants previously spoken of in the lecture-room or laboratory; these are of great use, not only in making the work more real—what use, for instance, are class-room notions of physical geography unless illustrated by the formation of the country round the school?—but by bringing the boys more directly in contact with nature.

The school journey is a most interesting development, and the account which Miss Dodd gives, in Mr. Sadler's volume of "Special Reports," of two such expeditions is well worth reading, because it is full of suggestion.—Condensed from "Educational Times."

The Microscope in the High School.

All study of anatomy and physiology of animals and plants must necessarily include a thorough examination of their tissues by the aid of the microscope. No clear idea of the structure of muscle, nerve, bone, cartilage, secreting cell, animalcules, lower cryptogamic plants, pollen grains, etc., etc., can be obtained by reading only. The objects must actually be seen. Once seen and carefully examined, they are rarely, if ever, forgotten. The boy who has studied with a microscope knows that a cell is something more than "a circle with a little circle in it, containing a dot." None but a boy brought up on text-books would define the object of those words. (Many teachers stand in awe of the microscope, and fear that they may damage the instrument irreparably if they try to handle it, while others, anxious to adopt the best methods of instruction, find themselves hampered by the ignorance and whims of principals, superintendents, and school boards. The simple technique required for such work as teachers will have to do is easily learned.) High school pupils learn in two or three exercises all that they need to know about the use of eyepiece and objective, mirror and diaphragm, coarse and fine adjustment, illuminating the object and finding the focus. Why cannot the teacher do the same? The instructor, whose superiors are ignorant or unappreciative of the needs of his department, can do nothing better than to enter upon a campaign of en-

lightenment, and to insist upon every possible occasion upon the necessity of having an equipment of microscopes. In the course of time, persistence will as certainly win in this case as it has in many similar ones, and the desired instruments will be purchased. A good instrument can be bought for from \$18 to \$25. If it is impossible to supply each pupil in the class or section with a separate instrument, there ought at least to be one instrument, by means of which minute structures and organisms can be exhibited to the pupils individually.

Too often in the past, and in some places it is still so, has the microscope been left in the department of physics where it is studied (if at all) as a means of illustrating certain principles of optics. Its proper sphere is that of an instrument of research, a means to an end and not the end itself.

The microscopes having been obtained, it became necessary to have the specimens properly prepared before they can be examined. This is, after all, in many cases, a very simple matter, consisting merely of putting the object on the slide in a drop of water, and covering this with a cover glass. In other cases good specimens, as many of the tissues of the body, for example, are obtainable only by special methods of preparation, involving, perhaps, fixing, hardening, imbedding, sectioning, staining, and mounting in some special manner. These methods are, of course, familiar only to the trained histologist. Nevertheless, specimens prepared in this manner can now be obtained at very small cost from dealers in microscopical supplies, and a single set will last indefinitely, if properly handled, for the specimens are so mounted as to be permanently preserved. Teachers of zoology, botany, and physiology can now easily and cheaply procure all kinds of specimens their classes are likely to need.

[Charles Wright Dodge, of the University of Rochester, in "Journal of Applied Microscopy," condensed for *The School Journal*]

A Quaint Old School-Book.

E. T. Carson, county auditor, has come into possession of a quaint mathematical volume. The title of the work is "The Federal Calculator, American Schoolmaster's Assistant, and Young Man's Companion." This book was published in Troy, N. Y., in 1802, the author being Daniel Hawley.

The author, in his preface, declares that he would not have attempted to perfect the work had it not been for an act of Congress, passed in April, 1792, establishing eagles, dollars, dimes, cents, and mills as the common money of account in the United States, this mode of keeping accounts growing so rapidly that the author presumed he was serving the public by revising and adapting it.

Among the general problems at the close of the work are a number that seem peculiar at this day. Among them are these:

"An ancient lady, being asked how old she was, to avoid a direct answer, said: I have nine children, and there are three years between the birth of each of them; the eldest was born when I was nineteen years old, which is now exactly the age of the youngest. How old was the lady?"

"A gentleman went to sea at seventeen years of age. Eight years after that he had a son born, who lived forty-six years, and died before his father, after whom the father lived twice twenty years, and then died also. I demand the age of the father when he died."

"A man, driving his geese to market, was met by a man, who said good-morning, with your hundred geese. I have not an hundred geese, says he; but if I had half as many as I now have, and two geese and a half, besides the number I have already, I should have an hundred. How many had he?"

The last three pages of the book are taken up with what the author gives as "copies," among them being these:

"When sororw is asleep, wake it not."
 "Malice seldom wants a mark to shoot at."
 "Better unborn than untaught."
 "He who seeks trouble never misses it."
 "Kings, as well as other men, must die."

—"Indianapolis News."

Minus a Teacher.

The New Zealand "Schoolmaster" tells this amusing story. The head teacher in a Sunday school was much worried by the noise of the scholars in the room next to him. At last unable to bear it any longer, he mounted a chair, and looked over the partition dividing the two rooms to see who the offenders were. Seeing one boy a little taller than the others talking a great deal, he leant over, seized the boy by the collar, lifted him over the partition, and banged him into a chair in his room, saying: "Now, be quiet." He then resumed his lesson until about a quarter of an hour later, when he saw a small head appear round the door, and a meek little voice said: "Please, sir, you've got our teacher."

Fiction in the Teaching of History.

By R. F. Charles.

"The Use of Historical Romances in the Teaching of History" is the title of an interesting paper read before the College of Preceptors, London, and reported in "The Educational Times." Among other things he says:

"I suppose we shall all agree that the science of history cannot be taught in schools. Professor Seeley's aphorism runs:

History without political science has no fruit;
Political science without history has no root.

That is it; we cannot build up an inductive science without a store of facts, and in teaching history in schools, we cannot treat only such facts as bear directly on political science.

"But a course of good history lessons, even in junior forms, may lay the foundations of political science. The child may gradually be trained to have some notion of what is meant by a state, some notion of its functions, some notion of what is meant by law. He may learn the meaning of some technical terms, without which no subsequent progress is possible. But he cannot understand them if it is taught merely notionally and by itself. It would then be merely an unprofitable exercise of memory. We cannot teach the science of botany without the flowers or the weeds before us. Similarly in history, to learn the functions of a state, the child must be shown their working by the aid of imagination; first, in the simplest form, in the lives of individuals and their relation to other people, then in classes of people, the barons, the clergy, the serfs, the traders, and their relations. To attain this, the past must somehow be galvanized into life. Nothing can be satisfactorily done till this is achieved—till the child realizes that he is dealing with practical matters and concrete facts, or, to use Carlyle's words, till he has in his mind "some picture of the thing acted." In a lecture I had the honor of delivering in this place some time ago, I pointed out how important a part geography has in bringing about this result. A good history lesson is thus often largely geographical. It sometimes turns to the history of language, and constantly deals with the meaning of words, which, in some cases, the child should be helped to evolve for himself. To bring out the reality of a period, many facts of social life must be taught—about dress, food, arms, trade, means of transport, amusements, and modes of life generally."

WHAT IS THE USE OF TEACHING HISTORY?

What is the use of teaching history? Mr. Charles answers the question thus:

"The answer is, that in these preliminary stages history is not a specialized study; it is a kind of general education, allied with geography on the one hand, and literature on the other. The specialist scientific historian looks at his facts only as they bear on his subject—the history of states. The teacher of children uses his facts not as ends in themselves, though I maintain that many facts in the history of our race or country are worth knowing, but as means of educating the memory, the faculties of attention, reasoning, and judgment; of awakening and training the imagination, of establishing an ethical standard, more especially a habit of accuracy and a regard for truth. Moreover, the facts he teaches are not valueless. Though many of our pupils are not likely to become professed historians, yet a knowledge of the principal facts of our history at least is necessary, if a boy is to understand the books he reads, the conversation he hears, and take an intelligent part in his civil duties.

"Now, the first thing to do is to make our disconnected facts flow in a metaphorical stream, and the second is to make this stream a stream of living water; to make it real. Much may be done by pictures."

HOW THE HISTORICAL NOVEL MAY HELP.

"To-night we have to consider what may be gained, if anything, by calling in the aid of fiction. We are confronted with the difficult question, If history be the quest of truth, if one of its objects be to teach the weighing of evidence and the habit of accurate statements, are we not rather hindering than helping our study by employing fiction? I have endeavored to answer this question by implication in the remarks I have been making on the nature of history. To history defined as the residuum after the purely scientific elements have been subtracted, the careful use of fiction is a help. 'The mixture of a lie doth ever add pleasure,' says Bacon, and I have shown that pleasure is one of the elements we need to awaken the historical imagination. Again, in what way does an honestly attempted picture in words differ from a painted picture? No one doubts the use of the latter; yet, like a picture in words, it can never set forth the whole truth, and may contain the same errors.

"We all know how Shakespeare treated history. He followed pretty closely a chronicle or Plutarch's 'Lives.' It was not his fault if these were untrustworthy, but he re-arranged the order of events and added new ones. With regard to characterization, he followed the general conception he got

from his sources, so far as he could, but he never let this interfere with a dramatic effect he wished to obtain. For mere facts of history, Shakespeare had a supreme contempt; they were to him but the rough marble out of which he carved his living statues. The play most frequently acted, Richard III., is a mass of misrepresentation, both of fact and character, and in all, we may say, the historical truth is sacrificed to dramatic truth. Yet we feel that Shakespeare's plays have a value for the historical student, and that the saying of Pitt, that he had learned all the history he knew from Shakespeare, was not altogether absurd. What the plays of Shakespeare do is to show convincingly that the passions of human nature, its hopes and fears, and conscience, were as real in past times as at the present time. And this is, I suppose, what Pitt meant when he said that he had learned all the history he knew from Shakespeare's plays. We learn from Shakespeare, not the real facts, but the reality of history.

"The plays of Tennyson and Sir Henry Taylor are examples of careful historical work. They lack, however, the dramatic inspiration, and therefore fail to convince. It is not enough to be accurate. If the truth of history is to be flashed upon the mind, we must get to the soul of the character; we must work from within, as Shakespeare did. A mere enumeration of the looks, the habits, the dress, even the words and actions of a character, is not convincing."

ONLY BOOKS OF THE FIRST RANK SHOULD BE USED.

In historic fiction of the first rank, the author succeeds in flashing upon the inward eye some more or less accurate pictures of a distant past, says the writer. In Scott, Thackeray, Kingsley, and others of the first rank, the romantic and historical elements are inextricably mingled. The heroes and heroines are people of the time, influencing and influenced by the great events of the time. This is an important point in determining the value of such books in teaching history. In more recent tales, however, beginning with Stevenson's "Black Arrow," there is a tendency to use history merely as a background to a romance of adventure. The result is to make unimportant events bulk disproportionately, and the main thread of history is kept so distinct from the romantic narrative that as a youthful and very candid pupil confessed, "One can always skip it."

The author concludes with the following practical suggestions:

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS.

1. "To kindle the imagination, it is better to take the most vivid and interesting narrative or play, rather than one that is less interesting, though more accurate. The latter will not attain the object desired, for the history will be skipped, or, if forced on the reader, will bore him.
 2. "Some help is necessary in the case of Scott and Kingsley; words and allusions need explaining, and, more important, the initial difficulty and heaviness has to be got over.
 3. "But the lesson must not become merely a literature lesson, as it has a tendency to become. Something can be done by the teacher, by drawing attention to the historical elements; only let him beware of making the children skeptical; that will come soon enough without his aid. He may well ask from time to time, what events, claiming to be historical, are noted in the novel that are not found in the school history: what facts may be learned from the novel about the art of war, about the formation of armies; about ships; what facts of social life, amusements, dress, food, etc. It is very useful to illustrate some description on the blackboard, to draw the plan of a monastery or a castle or a field of battle. Other questions, as of characterization, will easily suggest themselves, it being always borne in mind that while the novel is primarily used to excite interest, it is not to be used to excite merely a vague indefinite pleasure.
 4. "We should recollect that many historical tales that do not appeal to us do appeal to the young, and it may be well to secure their co-operation by giving them access to them. I find, myself, that most boys will not willingly read Scott by themselves, though with a little help, and perhaps a little pressure, at the beginning of a novel, they take warmly to him. Such writers as Henry, Conan Doyle, Talbot, Reed—whose early death all lovers of good boys' books deplore—Miss Roberts, the writer who calls herself Austin Clare, and others, many of whose names and books you will find in a list written by Mr. Courthorne Bowen, appeal more directly to the young, though here, too, the history portion requires a little help from the teachers to prevent its being skipped.
 5. "Our object is to teach the boys to read: selected passages should be read in class, and their principal points noted. The main part should be done out of school.
- "It may be asked: Would you, then, allow the use of any historical novel: is there no principle of selection? Well, I doubt if life is long enough to enable us to select very exhaustively. What I should seek would be, firstly, force and vividness; secondly, accuracy; thirdly, sympathetic treatment. I should prefer a broad, general, historical subject, rather than an historical detail. I do not in the least mind a little preface on the part of the author, provided he does not wilfully malign the opposite party."

Interesting Features of Education in Sweden.

More money is expended for education in Sweden in proportion to national wealth than in any other European country, according to Dr. Harris' latest educational report. Instruction in the state or national schools is mainly gratuitous. Education in the common schools is similar for both sexes. Secondary education is free for boys, but the higher education of girls is entirely a private undertaking. There are no boys' boarding schools in Sweden, and but one for girls.

Since 1875 the state has paid two-thirds of the teachers' salary, which amounted to 700 crowns (\$187). The rest is paid by the parish. The school age is from 7 to 14, and co-education is everywhere prevalent up to 10 years of age.

The national schools of Sweden are of several kinds.

(1) Infant schools, where children are taught the elements of reading, writing, religion, arithmetic, and in the towns, needlework.

(2) National schools proper, where instruction in plain and fluent reading of the Swedish language is given, generally by the phonetic method; and where religion, Bible history, church singing, writing, and the four rules of arithmetic are taught. This is the compulsory minimum course and its results, according to the report, are that all read well, that the majority write a fair hand and that they spell fairly well. Aside from the compulsory course, instruction is given in geography, Swedish and general history, arithmetic to and including the double rule of three in whole numbers and fractions; in geometry, geometrical drawing, natural history, needlework, gymnastics, military drill, and in the upper classes for girls, cooking.

(3) Higher national schools possessed in common by several parishes, are opened 24 weeks in a year to give opportunity to children of the working classes, while at the same time allowing them to continue their manual labor. Only pupils graduating from the national schools are admitted. In these higher schools the subjects are the same as taught in the lower national schools, except that a foreign language is sometimes taught. The teachers must have studies at the university. These schools are entirely distinct from the people's high schools and the burger schools in the towns, for the working and middle classes.

There were 7,684 women teachers in Sweden in 1890 and 5,060 men teachers.

The salary is the same for men and women in the country schools, in Stockholm a woman teacher receives about two-thirds as much as a man.

There were about 75 secondary schools in Sweden in 1892-3 with 14,608 students. Thirty of these schools fulfil requirements leading to the universities. The cost of instruction is from \$8 to \$10 for each student. In 1891, 650 students, 15 of whom were women, passed the examination admitting them to the universities.

The state has attended to the education of women by founding special female training colleges and by giving women the same rights in the universities as men. Women are excluded from the professional schools for engineering, ship-building, veterinary surgery, etc., but admitted to those of the fine arts, those for sloyd and gymnastics. As teachers, head mistresses, members of school boards, lady inspectors and writers on pedagogics, the influence of women is steadily increasing, and the social position of the woman teacher, be she governess or school mistress, is a highly esteemed one.

Sloyd was taught in 1895 schools of Sweden in the year 1894. The government and several agricultural societies aid 25 agricultural schools, which aim to give practical instruction to young men, so that they may carry on farms of their own. Besides this, two dairy schools and 18 dairy stations give regular instructions in dairying. A horticultural school was opened in 1890 at Norrviken, with a two years' course in the practical management of a garden and in floriculture. There are also several private housekeeping schools, where girls are trained in the practical and theoretical requirements of domestic economy.

The Swedes do not neglect the training of weak and sickly children. Since 1885 the Society of the Fresh Air Fund, established in Stockholm, has provided summer homes in the country for 3,352 children, these being sent out usually in colonies of about 25 each. While in the summer colony all school work is forbidden, but the children are given regular employment, such as keeping rooms in order, assisting in the kitchen, keeping the yards in order, carrying water, wood, etc. The children also keep their own clothing in order under the supervision of the matron. Good manners, order, cleanliness, and morals are taught in the summer colonies.

The Scandinavian School Congress, attended by nearly 7,000 teachers, meets every five years at one of the three Scandinavian capitals. About 3,700 teachers attend from Sweden, 1,200 from Norway, 1,500 from Denmark and 300 from Finland. The subjects awakening the most discussion at the last meeting were religious education in the schools, historical instruction, and the peace movement.

The Forum.

This department is intended for the free discussion of educational questions and often views may be expressed in the letters which THE SCHOOL JOURNAL cannot indorse, but which are thought-provoking and interesting enough to be worth the space they take up.

Teachers' Examinations.

I wish to thank you for the stand you are taking in regard to examinations. I believe there is more sin, cruelty, and injustice practiced in this department than most people have any idea of. This examination business is a veritable golgotha to many of our very best teachers; indeed, they dread it more than do the poor teachers, as a rule. The wiser the person, the more convinced is he that he cannot answer every puzzling question that might be asked him, and that he is liable to slip and be cast out, and sent to Coventry.

I saw it stated in *The Journal* within the last two years that 33 1/3 per cent. of those in the state of New York holding second-grade certificates failed to get any certificate at the next examination.

Is it possible that one-third of our teachers worthy of a second-class certificate know less after teaching two years than when examined, or before teaching at all? What kind of schools must the state of New York have where teachers become less fit to teach the more experience they have?

Lawyers, physicians, ministers, mechanics of every class, and even chimney-sweeps, are supposed to be improved by experience. The only person in the whole range of human activities who is not benefited by experience is the school teacher. Experience counts nothing with him. It is supposed that it causes him to deteriorate, therefore he must be examined every fifteen days, more or less.

What you say regarding the promotion of teachers in New York city is to the point. I have seen many schools where even the best scholar would not make the best principal, by a long ways. I would not want to promote on scholarship alone.

J. Fairbanks.

Springfield, Mo.

"Up-State Teachers" Not Wanted.

So we "up-the-state teachers need never apply
To teach in the schools of Greater New York!
How mighty they've grown, since they've reached out their
arms

And taken within all the Westchester farms,
And part of the sands of Long Island's poor lands!
What next shall we learn that the Tiger demands?
Has he never learned that the rest of the state
Has had much to do in making him great?
That all the great things that the Greater New York
Can do, or can boast, we have shared in the work?
Perhaps he'll refuse to take money from here
To pay for the goods that we purchase each year.
What say you, rich merchants, will you, too, deny
When we go to your city your store goods to buy,
And tell us your people can buy all your goods,
That you need not the funds from the countryman's woods,
Nor the proceeds of farms, of the dairy, or fields,
Nor aught that the "up-the-state" farming land yields?
Oh, no! You are ready to take all our grains,
But seem to be loath to take some of our brains;
You seem to forget the best blood you have got
Has come, as a rule, from the countryman's cot!
You've scarcely a man that's attained world renown
But what had his start in some back, country town.
Just think—what a little, small pattern of man!
And find one so narrow in country who can.
We'd call "Small Potatoes!" if you were up here,
"And few in a hill!" when we saw you draw near,
Or "Cabbage-Head Tiger!" who talks like the fools
Who try to get power by killing the schools!
Excuse the rough words; it is this that I meant;
We'd simply behold you, with silent contempt!

Zero.

Date, From Up the State.

Chicago Discussions.

I was much interested in the discussion that took place in Chicago, and write to inquire if there are any such discussions in New York or Brooklyn. I have attended many meetings in both these cities, and must say they seem a great deal livelier out there than we do here. Possibly it may be in the reporter. I notice that Mr. Giffin, who was so much thought of here is a favorite out there. He deserves to be. I looked in vain to find something about Col. Parker. Is he not in Chicago yet? If so, how is it that we do not hear from him?

F. L. M.

Newark.

The School Journal.

NEW YORK & CHICAGO.

WEEK ENDING JANUARY 29, 1898.

The New England plan of placing the appointment of a state superintendent in the hands of a state board of education is the most sensible one that has yet been tried. It is the only plan that has proved successful in keeping politics and politicians (as much as is possible in this country) out of the education department and in retaining the services of tried and able men whose continuance in office will benefit the commonwealth. New York and most of the other states still adhere to an antiquated method which drags the office into the pernicious system of party spoils. There is absolutely no guarantee that fitness will be considered in the selection of the superintendent, nor does efficient service count as the highest claim for selection; and yet these ought to be the first and final considerations. Thus it happens that a strong man like Judge Draper who had in him much of the stuff that made Horace Mann could be succeeded by a politician of the stripe of Crooker of Buffalo. What will the legislature do with Dr. Skinner on February 9? Will they re-appoint him simply and solely because he is the best man for the place? It certainly ought to be done.

The appointment of a state superintendent for New York ought to be turned over to the board of regents. The sooner this is done, the better for the state and the country. The example of New York will set the other states to thinking.

A college education means that a man shall have breadth enough to understand men of various kinds before he takes up any specialization. The danger now is that men do not understand other men. Men think along different lines on important subjects. The college must give such training as shall make its students understand their fellow-men. The man who goes direct from the high school into a specialty, be it law, medicine, or theology, has not that basis of understanding his fellow men. The educated man is one that understands his surroundings. The college aims to accomplish this by planting a philosophical mode thought in the minds of its students. True, it does not always accomplish this, but that is its aim.

It seems after all that the teacher ranks next to the clergyman in expectation of living to a good old age. Physicians agree that among the elements which contribute to long life are sobriety, regular hours, outdoor exercise, some mental occupation, and above all, serenity. Clergymen comply with these conditions more than people in other walks of life. Neuville's table of professional men gave the following averages of the length of life in 1,000 cases taken for illustration: clergymen, 66; farmers, 65; teachers, 59; merchants, 57; lawyers, 54; physicians, 52.

Kasper's table shows that the percentage in England of those who become 70 years old is as follows: Clergymen, 42 per cent.; farmers, 40; merchants, 33; teachers, 27.

One of the "living questions" of the day is the official recognition of political parties. This is certainly a new movement. In the early days of the republic it was known that there were two parties, the Federal and the Anti-Federal, but this fact never appeared in laws. Now it is proposed to regulate the primary meetings of parties; in fact, we have come to a time when the government recognizes it is run by two parties. Party fealty is encouraged, it being thought that unless there are two great political organizations, representing clear and defined ideas of governmental policy, the stability of the republic is not firm. The criticism of the minority party and their honest efforts to gain supremacy will temper the administration of the majority party and insure purity of conduct. Progress seems possible only along party lines and party principles. It can be done only by organized effort of party machinery.

In the present number are given several abstracts of important educational articles that have appeared in current periodicals; also digests of papers read at recent meetings. *The School Journal* purposes to make this a strong feature in the coming year. Digests of valuable educational articles published in the journals and magazines of this country, France, Germany, England, Canada, South America, and Australia will be presented. It is the plan to devote one number each month to these, that the readers of *The Journal* may obtain a comprehensive view of what is being done along educational lines throughout the civilized world. The abstracts will be similar in character to those published in "The Literary Digest" and the "Review of Reviews."

The Chattanooga Meeting.

FROM THE EAST.

Superintendents can reach Chattanooga by two main routes: By the Southern Railway, which leaves New York, via the Pennsylvania Railroad, at 12.05 (night), and at 4.20 P. M. By the Norfolk and Western Railway, which leaves New York foot of Liberty street at 3.30 P. M. The price is the same by either route.

FROM THE WEST.

The train leaves Cincinnati by the Queen and Crescent route at 8.30 A. M., and 8 P. M. From Louisville at 7.45 P. M. The prospects now are of a good meeting.

Rates to Chattanooga.

New York to Chattanooga and return, good for ten days, \$27.50. Sleeping cars, \$5.50. Rates from Cincinnati to Chattanooga and return, \$10.15. Sleeping cars, \$3.25. This is the Queen and Crescent Railroad. There are two routes from New York, via the Southern, and via the Norfolk and Western.

Important Educational Meetings.

February 18-19, 1898. National Kindergarten Union at the Normal School, Philadelphia, Pa.; Miss Lucy Wheelock, Boston, President.

February 22-24, 1898.—Meeting of the Department of Superintendence at Chattanooga, Tenn. Hon. Nathan C. Schaeffer, State Superintendent of Pennsylvania, President; Supt. Lawton B. Evans, Augusta, Ga., Secretary.

July 7-12, 1898. Meeting of the National Educational Association, at Washington, D. C., Supt. James Greenwood Kansas City, Mo., President; Irwin Shepard; Winona, Minn. Secretary.

Trans-Mississippi Educational Convention at Omaha, Neb., in June.

The Eastern Ohio and Western West Virginia Superintendents and Principals' Round Table will meet at Wellsburg, West Va., March 3 to 5.

New Jersey Teachers' Convention.

Trenton, N. J.—The forty-third annual meeting of the New Jersey State Teachers' Association opened Dec. 27. The interest centered principally in the fight over the teachers' retirement fund. Miss Elizabeth A. Allen, of Jersey City, one of the champions of the fund, and whose untiring zeal went far to secure its adoption by the legislature, is the leader of its radical supporters. She, however, goes farther than many who are supporters of the fund, and so they are divided themselves.

Dr. Green, principal of the state schools, welcomed the teachers. He referred to the distinguished record of the association, which was organized in 1854, saying that time was measured by events rather than by the calendar.

He pointed out the great strides made during the life of the association in education and science, holding that practically all great progress had been made in that time.

The association had kept pace with the general progress. On its platform had been first discussed many new ideas which had meant much for the educational interests of the state.

He alluded to some of the most important of these, including the abolishment of the examination clause in the teacher's license system, the raising of the school tax from \$4 to \$5 per child, the raising of the salary of county superintendents, and the introduction of manual training.

Pres. J. Howard Hulsart, in his response, said that he recognized the fact that the gathering of so many representative teachers from different sections of the state was an important occasion.

He had no sooner completed his remarks than the fight over the teachers' retirement fund began. Mr. Thompson, of Orange, rising to offer amendments to the constitution, abolishing the section providing for a committee on nominations, making fifty a quorum, instead of fifteen, and making the balloting for officers the first duty of the session, instead of the last. The amendments were introduced by the Allen faction, and their purpose is said to be to throw the selection of officers entirely on the floor. The president of the association set the following afternoon as a time for discussion of the amendments.

Treas. H. C. Harris, of Bayonne, offered the following resolutions:

Resolved, that the committee of the state association on teachers' retirement fund, known as the congressional district committee, be discontinued by this association, in order that the trustees of the retirement fund may have the appointment of all the official committees.

Resolved, that the members of the teachers' retirement fund who are members of the State Teachers' Association constitute a committee to select trustees for the teachers' retirement fund, and that their selection shall be the selection of the state association without further action.

Resolved, that at any time hereafter when it shall devolve upon the president to appoint officers for the retirement fund it shall be the duty of the members of this fund who are members of the state association to submit names from which he shall make selections.

While these resolutions seemed in line with Miss Allen's object, they did not suit her entirely, and she rose to object to them. The trouble was: that they did away with the committee of which she is a member, and through which she hopes to get amendments to the law successfully lobbied through the coming session of the legislature. She recalled how the efforts of this committee had led to the passage of the law now on the statute books.

The discussion of the resolutions was postponed until the next morning.

The president appointed as a nominating committee: John Enright, of Freehold; Miss M. J. B. Thomas, Bayonne; S. D. Hoffman, Atlantic City; H. Brewster Willis, New Brunswick, and Franklin Thorn, Paterson.

The latter, who is the Miss Allen candidate for president, declined to serve, and W. L. R. Haven, of Morristown, was appointed in his place.

The first paper was read by State Supt. Charles J. Baxter, on "Truth." The speaker said that the road of truth was a rocky one. A person following it would be confronted with self interests and many other obstacles. The tendency to misconception was not due always to inherited depravity, but often to early influences. Teachers, therefore, could do much to advance the cause of truth. They should fit themselves for their task by bringing life and work closer to truth itself.

Pupils are too often led to believe that they are thinking when they are only puzzled. They are led to believe that they have mastered difficult problems when they have only gained an inkling into them.

Miss Sarah A. Dynes, of the state normal school, gave a talk on "The Study of History Compared with Reading History." She gave a brief history of history and the influences, past and present, which have affected its character. She described how it is being taught in our universities, where American history is not the basis, but the last link in the chain of history, viewed from a philosophical standpoint. In the public schools it should relate chiefly to this country, and be first geographical, showing the spread of the nation, and then so-

ciological, showing how the people had formed their governments. It should show how commerce had grown, and why; how we support ourselves, and the condition of our manufacturers and of the workmen, and the local history to be gathered about the school. Miss Dynes described some of the shortcomings of present methods, and claimed that time was wasted, history perverted, and the real life of the people not taught in many schools.

Owing to illness, the lecturer of the evening, Dr. Mabie, was not present, his place being taken by Prof. Francis H. Stoddard, of the New York university. Prof. Stoddard delivered an address on social and educational theories of three hundred years ago. He described the sixteenth century as the age of romance, but said the nineteenth century was the greatest age of romance, although the practical age, and gave illustrations to prove this. To link the past with the present, he gave as the duty of teachers, and said that much could be learned from the theories of the sixteenth century. The speaker described three of the romantic theories of the sixteenth century—Sir



Dr. J. M. Green, Principal of the State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

Thomas More's Utopia, the Arcadia of Sir Philip Sydney, and Lord Bacon's New Atlantis—and showed how these writers in picturing ideal lands had hit on many theories, which had since been put in operation. He pointed out that the tendency was in the direction of doing away with individuality for the common good, the basic principle of their belief.

TUESDAY'S SESSIONS.

Miss Allen's friends flocked around her, and came from Jersey City and Hoboken in large numbers, but they failed to win. She had to back down from her plan of winning on the floor, and doing away with committee manipulation of the association. The first point was won by the radical fund, when the resolutions introduced by Treasurer Harris came up. They were amended by Prof. Manness, to strengthen the phraseology, and were supported by him.

Supt. John Enright expressed his hearty sympathy for the retirement fund, and favored the resolutions as calculated to promote harmony.

The vote was fifty-two for the resolutions and fifty-four against, and the president declared them lost. It was marked in the vote, which was a rising one, that the women were with Miss Allen, almost unanimously, and the men as generally against her.

In the afternoon, Prin. Franklin Thorn presented the annual report of the pension committee. He recounted the progress of the movement, the difficulties, and the futile efforts last winter to amend the law. He asserted that it was the one live topic in educational circles. Over \$15,000 had been received in the fund, and five teachers had obtained annuities. The number of applications for annuities under consideration was four.

The president then announced the proposed amendments to the constitution open for discussion. Mr. Thompson, of Orange, who introduced the amendments, stated that he did not think the convention prepared to take intelligent action upon them. He therefore asked to withdraw the amendments, and in their place introduce a resolution providing for a committee to revise the constitution. The permission to withdraw the amendments was granted. Dr. Green moved that the appointments be made in the morning. He said there had never been strife in the association, and there should not be now. He had given his pledge to the fund, and he did not know what it meant to back out. His amendment and the resolution passed without opposition.

The first paper of the day was by Prof. Samuel Weir, of the New York university, on "Rousseau's Social Theory the Key to His Emile."

Charles H. Johnson, of Montclair, followed with an address on "The Relation of Our Schools to Patriotism and Citizenship." The speaker took as the basis of his address the fact that republics have not survived eternally. Whether this republic lives or not depends on whether we prove true to the fundamental principles on which the government is based. He predicted that the influence of the public schools would have great effect on the future welfare of the country.

The last on the program for the morning was an address by Prof. Alexander T. Ormond, of Princeton university, on "A Phase of Herbert Spencer's Pedagogy."

Prof. Ormond first called attention to the fact that Spencer's book on education was written a generation ago, and that much he favored has been adopted, and now seems commonplace. He held that the end of education must be a comprehensive one. Educators had been too apt to adopt methods which resulted in a forcing process. Spencer protested against this, and wanted education to be more natural—to follow the natural order of the development of the child mind. Spencer was given up to a scientific education, and Prof. Ormond took exception to this. Instruction should appeal to the sentiment. It was a fatal mistake to educate the intellect alone. Spencer said the æsthetic education should be regulated to the leisure part of life. The theory was a false one. Only when art and science join hands can adequate results be brought about.

The speaker was also opposed to Spencer's idea of punishment. It was calculated to overthrow moral power. Prof. Ormond held that the most effective punishment is that which changes the evil doer unto a well doer. Forgiveness and mercy may become the most potent agencies of punishment.

He also took issue with Spencer on the latter's theories as to moral education, holding that you must build up the conscience of the child, and that you need not hesitate to appeal to its sense of right and wrong.

Prof. Ormond said that he was not speaking as to methods, but he was afraid that in our dealings with religious education we had been too sensitive about its relation to the public. We should not be afraid to make God the center of education, and the Bible the great educational instrument it should be.

At the afternoon session C. B. Gilbert, Ph.D., superintendent of the Newark schools, spoke on the "Correlation of Studies." He showed that this was the natural method. It was impossible to take a subject and say that it belonged entirely in one division of the course of study.

He claimed for a correlative course of study economy in the administration of the curriculum of studies. It had become complex, but people would no more go back to the exclusive teaching of the three R's than to the stage-coach. The course must take in the whole child, and satisfy his every want; hence, the curriculum could not be simplified by cutting out; and the only other way was by bringing the studies together.

He declared that education is divided into three great divisions; creating a high purpose, acquainting the child with its needs, conditions, and possibilities, and giving means to accomplish this end.

Prof. Gilbert deprecated concentrating any course of study around one branch. In the past the most neglected thing in the school had been the child. It had been shaped to fit a course of study made by man.

The next paper was by Charles Jacobus, A.M., now of Springfield, Mass., on "The Modern Archimedes." Taking the child character as the weight, and drawing the lever and fulcrum, he showed the teacher, the parents, the family, and the preacher as Archimedes' power moving the weight. The teacher sometimes moved, not only the child character, but lifted up the mother, the family, and even the whole community, as well.

The greater part of teaching had been done with the thought that knowledge is power. The greater truth was that character is power.

Prof. Jacobus deduced from answers received to inquiries sent out some time ago the belief that an encouraging amount of moral training is being done in the schools. In disciplining, the teachers appeal to higher motives, and while less discipline is needed, it is more complex, but less striking, in a literal sense.

He gave the credit of the advance to the teachers, as the result of their broader education, of their making studies more interesting, and of their leading the scholar to feel that he is a factor in human progress. Hindrances to improvement were found in the tendency to material interest, the laxity of home life, the undervaluing by many of what the teachers told them of the dignity and importance of character.

In the evening, "The Present Conditions, Problems, and Prospects of Child Study" was the subject of an address by G. Stanley Hall, LL.D., of Clark university. He gave great praise to Dr. Green and Miss Williams of the state schools for what they have done in this line, and gave many interesting and curious discoveries made as to the growth of the mind and bodies of children, and the lessons to be learned therefrom.

He advocated hearty laughing and hearty crying on the part

of children as expanding the soul. Children have an inalienable right to be happy. It makes for health and growth. Exercise also was their prerogative, as, for one thing, it is impossible to have a healthy will without healthy muscles to respond. The training of the muscles makes for strength of will and fixity of purpose.

Growth he described as the normal condition. Hereditary disease could be foretold before it came on, by the stoppage of growth. Parents should stamp out everything in the way of growth—the second growth, particularly—as it went more toward the development of the powers than of the size of the body, and would not come if conditions were not favorable.

Dr. Hall pointed out many of the dangers to which youth of both sexes is subjected during the years of growth before full maturity is obtained, and presented forcibly the need of clean, pure lives. Many of his statements as to the phenomena of growth were extremely curious, as well as beneficial, in showing what training and care is needed to secure proper development.

After the evening lecture the members of the state board of education gave a reception to the teachers, in the gymnasium. Refreshments were served.

Later there was a banquet in the Trenton house, attended by a number of the teachers.

N. E. A. Notes.

All the public school teachers of Washington were summoned to the Central High School hall, on the afternoon of Jan. 19, to meet representatives from the N. E. A. local committee. Mr. Whelpley, president of the board of school trustees and chairman of the N. E. A. committee on membership, presiding, introduced Dr. Whitman, president of Columbian college and chairman of the executive committee, whose theme was the good that teachers may expect to receive from the convention.

Dr. Whitman brought out the idea, that in former days educational thought followed the line of alliteration in the three r's, while to-day it takes rather the two i's; information and inspiration.

In speaking of the former, he used the metaphor of the acres which all are tilling, each in his own little field, some so diligently and with such absorbed attention that the fact that other ground exists, with other crops, is quite forgotten. Meeting other workers and gaining new facts and ideas, his horizon broadens, and thereafter he tills a wider stretch.

However, teaching is not merely the gathering and imparting of facts, but the making over of truth. Besides information, man needs inspiration. The speaker said that Maria Parloa's cook book contains more information than all the poetry of the Elizabethan age, yet there is no question as to which represents the life, the thought, the progress of mankind. The forces of American history are to be found in American manhood and womanhood. Such names as Washington, Lincoln, Grant, sum up the history of the past century. New Hampshire is known the world over as the birthplace of Webster, Massachusetts as the home of Adamses, Virginia, of Henry and Jefferson, Kentucky, of Clay. So, in the educational world to-day there are a dozen men and women making educational history, and by attending conventions, each teacher's soul is quickened by seeing, touching, hearing them. The mingling with such lights makes each a part of the brilliance shed.

So these two i's produce perfect vision, if focused upon the same point, as they cannot help being, in this coming convention.

Col. Blount, president of the committee of one hundred, next spoke upon what Washington offers to the teachers who will visit the city, urging that all teachers of the capital impress upon their friends abroad, in correspondence, if no other means be possible, the thought of the information and inspiration that cannot but be gained from such buildings as the Congressional Library, Smithsonian Institute, the National Museum; indeed, all of the public buildings, as well as the former haunts and homes of the great.

Mr. Thomas W. Smith, who was next introduced, said that, as chairman of the finance committee, he would meet the teachers in section meetings, but would say no more at that time.

Supt. Powell spoke with pleasure of the enthusiasm which had been aroused by the able addresses, saying that the coming educational convention is demanding, commanding, and receiving the best thought and effort of the best people of the city, and it is but fitting that teachers should lend a hand. The teacher, he said, receives better attention to-day than formerly, and receives it because he deserves it. Contact with others, and studying the plans of others have lifted him. Such influences will be felt in all of the seventeen sections into which the convention will be divided.

Mr. Whelpley then adjourned the meeting.

Jennie S. Campbell.

Program of the International Kindergarten Union.

Official program of the Convention of the International Kindergarten Union, to be held in the halls of Philadelphia normal school, Thirteenth and Spring Garden streets.

FRIDAY, 10 A. M., FEB. 18, 1898.

Address of welcome, Mr. Samuel B. Huey, president board of education; Mr. Simon Gratz, chairman normal school committee; Mr. George H. Cliff, principal Philadelphia normal school.

Roll call and brief reports from delegates.

Treasurer's and secretary's reports.

Reports of committees on Child Study; Literature, Magazines and Libraries; appointment of various committees.

FRIDAY, 2:30 P. M.

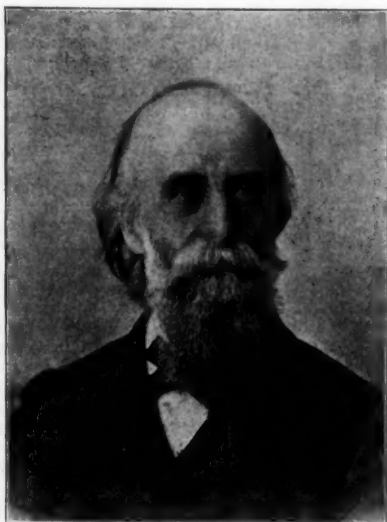
Conference on kindergarten training.

Address of welcome, Mrs. Mary E. Mumford, board of education.

Report from committee on training, Mrs. A. H. Putnam, Chicago.

Discussion, Miss Laura Fisher, Boston; Dr. Jenny B. Merrill, New York.

Address, "Color System of Teaching Music," Prof. Daniel Batchellor, Philadelphia.



Lyman Abbott, D.D.

FRIDAY, 8 P. M.

Address of welcome, Dr. Edward Brooks, superintendent of public schools, Philadelphia.

Response by the president, Miss Lucy Wheelock, Boston.

Address, "The Meaning of Infancy and Education," Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia college, N. Y.

Address, "Religion in the Kindergarten," Dr. Lyman Abbott, Brooklyn.

SATURDAY, 9:30 A. M., FEB. 19.

Business session.

Conference of music committee.

Report of committee, Miss Marie Hofer, Chicago.

SATURDAY, 8 P. M.

Address, "Practical Problems in the Kindergarten," Miss Susan E. Blow.

Address, "The Kindergarten as a Psychological Laboratory," Dr. Lightner Witmer, University of Pennsylvania.

Address, "Froebel as a Philosopher," Mr. James L. Hughes, superintendent of schools, Toronto.

Urging a Successor to Supt. Skinner.

Albany, N. Y.—Some Republican senators are urging Ex-State Sen. Cuthbert W. Pound as a successor to State Supt. of Pub. Inst. Charles R. Skinner. The election is by joint ballot, and takes place next month. M. Pound writes, however, that he is not a candidate against Dr. Skinner.

After State Supt. Skinner.

Charges of fraud in the matter of teachers' examinations have been made by Mrs. Julia K. West, the retiring school commissioner of Richmond county, New York. Mrs. West says that after trying in vain to get State Supt. Charles R. Skinner and Deputy Supt. Ainsworth to make a public investigation, she has forwarded the proofs of her allegations to Gov. Black.

Religious Garb in Poughkeepsie.

Albany, N. Y.—Supt. Charles R. Skinner has been served with papers in the appeal of Edward Keyser, of Poughkeepsie, from the action of the board of education of that city in leas-

ing for school purposes, at the rate of \$1 per year, the buildings known as schools No. 11 and 12, both buildings the property of St. Peter's Roman Catholic church, and in employing four teachers, two in each school, who are members of the Roman Catholic church, dress in a garb peculiar to their sect, and are addressed in the school by their names, prefixed by the term "Sister." The appellant alleges that the school is under the direction of a religious denomination, and that denominational doctrines are taught therein, contrary to the state constitution. The superintendent is asked to set aside the action of the board authorizing this condition of affairs.

The case is similar to that in the city of Watervliet, in which a decision was given by Supt. Skinner some months ago, prohibiting the teachers from wearing a religious garb while in the service of the board of education.

The Quebec Educational Bill.

The educational bill discussed at the last meeting of the legislature of the province of Quebec, did not succeed in passing both chambers of that body. In the legislative assembly the government has a majority and there the bill was in favor, being a government measure; but it was thrown out in the legislative council, and is at length being severely criticized by the people as they begin to see that there is more politics than education in the measure. Our correspondent writes that *The School Journal* caused a genuine surprise to Dr. Harper himself, the popular inspector of superior schools of Quebec. He had no suspicion that there existed a minister of education *de facto* in his province until he read that number. It ought to be "Minister of Education," but it isn't. Had the Education Bill passed, our correspondent adds, a politician would have received the appointment, whereas Dr. Harper is not a politician, but only an educationist.

Prof. Russell Dean of the Teachers College.

Prof. James E. Russell has been appointed dean of the New York Teachers college, just incorporated as a part of Columbia university. Pres. Seth Low, of the university, in announcing the appointment of Prof. Russell, said that he would be at the head of the college and its educational affairs as Pres. Hervey was.

For Uniform Requirements.

A conference of representatives from the leading women's colleges of the country was held at Barnard college, a few days ago. The meeting was under the auspices of the League of Parents and Teachers, its purpose being to arrange some plan for making college entrance requirements more nearly alike in the various women's colleges. The problem of fitting a girl for college often causes such interference with the schedule of a school, requiring the maximum amount of time from the highest-salaried teachers, that many private schools have been obliged to refuse college-fitting work. Several years ago some fifteen girls were prepared and sent to college by one of the large private schools of the city. The colleges represented were five: Vassar, Smith, Wellesley, Bryn Mawr, and Barnard. Some of the students needed Greek and some did not; Others had to have two modern languages, besides Latin; still others required only one. The girls requiring Greek had to study different authors, and in hardly two cases was the amount to be covered the same. Not even the Latin requirement agreed in all cases. Mathematics, especially algebra, proved another stumbling block. These fifteen girls required double, and in one or two of the subjects, treble, the number of classes a week, during a period of preparation extending over two years, that would have been necessary had the entrance requirements of the colleges been uniform.

The subject was thoroughly discussed at the Barnard college conference, and while the matter was not definitely settled, some changes in the entrance requirements will ultimately be made. Among those who took an active part in the subject were Miss Agnes Irwin, dean of Radcliffe college; Dr. James M. Taylor, president of Vassar college; Dean Louis Snow, of the women's college, Brown university; Mrs. Julia J. Irvine, president of Wellesley college, and Prof. Mary A. Jordan, head of the English department at Smith college. Miss Lois A. Bangs, president of the League of Parents and Teachers, was also prominent in the movement.

Supt. Kratz Reappointed.

Sioux City, Iowa.—Mr. H. E. Kratz has been re-appointed superintendent of the Sioux City schools, to serve for two years from July 1, 1898, at a salary of \$2,500 a year.

Prof. Kratz has been in charge of the public schools of Sioux City since November, 1891, and is now serving his seventh year in that position. He is an educator of experience and ability, and under his direction the city schools have reached a high degree of excellence.

The salary for the next year is \$250 higher than that which he is drawing at the present time. Prof. Kratz was formerly getting \$2,500 a year, but when the school board during the retrenchment movement of a few months ago cut the salaries of a number of the teachers, Prof. Kratz voluntarily offered to accept a reduction of \$250, an offer which was gratefully received by the board.

Training Schools for Rhode Island.

Providence, R. I.—The state normal school will establish a system next month for the maintenance of training schools in several cities and towns. In places where there are graded schools, two rooms of pupils will be set apart, to be presided over by a critic teacher with a normal student in each room under the direction of the critic. The town or city will be expected to pay only an ordinary salary to this critic teacher, but the state is to pay an additional amount, so as to secure a teacher of the highest ability. The advantage to the local school will be that it will not be required to pay for but one teacher for the two rooms. The advantage to the normal will be in securing school children by the roomful, where the normal students can study practical teaching under a critic teacher.

While this method of teaching teachers in training schools is not new in its essential features in the city of Providence, its extension to the surrounding towns is an entirely new departure, due to the intention of the management of the school to extend its usefulness as soon as it is removed to the new building now being completed.

Teacher Dissects a Cat Before a Class.

Fishkill-on-Hudson, N. Y.—The Matteawan board of education has received complaint regarding the dissection of a cat by one of the teachers in the free school. Miss Nearing, the teacher, had one of the boys catch a kitten for her. She chloroformed it, dissected it, and showed it before the class in physiology. There are sixteen members of the class, nine of them being young girls from eleven to fifteen years of age. This doubtless would have been the end of it had not the dissected parts been passed around among the classes of smaller pupils. Some of the young girls revolted at the sight, and could eat no dinner.

A year ago a similar operation at the school aroused indignation throughout the state. A pet cat belonging to one of the smaller pupils was used as a subject, and the little child knew nothing concerning it until it had been killed.

Later.—The board of education has adopted a resolution expressing disapproval of the dissection, and has informed the principal that anything pertaining to the dissection of animals in the public schools is prohibited. A repetition of the offence will be considered sufficient grounds for the dismissal of the teacher. Prin. G. R. Miller, under whose supervision the dissection was made, has tendered his resignation. It is reported that Miss Frances Nearing, the physiology teacher who conducted the dissection, will also resign.

Scientific Tests Upon Students.

Prof. J. McK. Cattell and Dr. L. Ferrand, of Columbia university, assisted by S. I. Franz, have begun experiments to test the mental and physical traits of 1,000 boys, students at the university. The first few experiments were begun about three years ago in the freshman class, and this year they are examining eighteen of these same boys, now in the senior class. The freshmen of two years ago will be examined next year, and the investigation will be continued until the professors have collected the necessary data from 1,000 boys, examined at the average ages of eighteen and twenty-one.

The experiments to measure mental and physical traits consist of tests of color, vision, hearing, perception of pitch or tone, sensation areas, the force of movement, reaction time, perception of time, after images, sensitiveness to pain, etc. Prof. Cattell says:

"Tests such as these are of importance for science. They teach us the normal type of individual and the normal variation from this type. They show us how different classes in the community differ, and on what conditions of heredity, education, etc., these differences depend. They show us how physical and mental traits are interrelated, how they alter with growth, and on what conditions development depends. The tests should be of interest to the individual, as they show how he compares with his fellows, indicating defects and special aptitudes, and if repeated later in the college course or in after life, the comparison may prove of great value."

The experiment the boys are most interested in is what they call "sticking needles into you." It is not a needle at all, but a blunt point, as large as the unsharpened end of a lead-pencil, attached to an instrument called an algometer. This delicate instrument tells one when he is hurt, and how much it takes to hurt him. All tests are made on the ball of the thumb, which is of about the same degree of toughness in all.

Vision is tested by reading small numerals at varying distances; hearing by the ticking of a watch; color blindness by having the subject pick out different colors of zephyr, and reaction by the rapidity with which one action can be made after hearing a certain sound. It has been found that one out of seventeen boys is color-blind, and more are color-defective; that nearly 50 per cent. are short-sighted, and 13 per cent. have defective hearing.

The professor thinks that the results of these investigations may aid in determining the important question as to what profession or calling a boy should choose. They will show his natural qualities and, therefore, in what occupation in life he could employ them to best advantage.

Kindergarten Music System.

Boston, Mass.—A simple and practical system of teaching elementary music to children has been invented by Miss Evelyn Ashton Fletcher, who has illustrated her methods in Sleeper Hall at the New England Conservatory of Music. In the opinion of Richard H. Dana, president of the conservatory, Prof. G. W. Chadwick and others of the faculty, the system is a valuable one.

An outline of some features of the method as given in a recent issue of the "Boston Transcript," suggests how all is accomplished. First, before staff or clef are mentioned, the family of notes is introduced, as Mr. Whole Note, Mrs. Half Note, and the children, Miss Quarter, Master Eighth, etc. These are cut out of wood, stained black, and the children name them as they do dolls for instance, when they are ready to move them into the home of the Note family, the Staff, the one who must dwell on the first floor (first line) is named something beginning with E, as Edith, Edward or Evelyn. The notes are also cut out of black paper, and the children delight in doing this work at home, pasting them on sheets of stiff paper bearing the staff lines.

The first idea of the Staff, or home of the Note family, is given by means of tapes stretched across the table in front of the children, and thus the significance of lines and spaces is easily comprehended. Until seen, one cannot realize how delighted the children are to move their little Charlie, Deborah, Emma, Freddie, etc., into their right places in the Staff House. Once there, their places are never forgotten, and as the teacher points from note to note with great rapidity, the answers do not lag. The ledger lines, above and below, are similarly learned, as the guardians of the house. Miss Treble Clef and Mr. Bass Clef had been previously introduced.

After the names of the notes are learned, their values are taught, and these are demonstrated by little ferrules: a long one for a whole note, one-half as long for a half-note, one-half as long as the last for a quarter, and so on for all values. Thus the children can pick out the proper lengths for notes and test them by placing the one on the other. For example, "How many sixteenth notes in a quarter-note?" asks the teacher. Little six-year-old goes to the box, seeks a ferrule on which a picture of a quarter-note is placed, then finds a sixteenth ferrule, places it on the first one, finds it does not cover it, finds one more sixteenth, places it also on the quarter-note ferrule, which is still not covered. The search continues until it is found that four sixteenth ferrules cover the quarter ferrule, and the child is ready to answer, "Four sixteenth-notes in a quarter-note."

Rests are taught in the same way, and become a reality to the child. The teacher tests the knowledge of values by placing notes and rests of varying lengths on the blackboard, often using colored chalks to add to the interest. She requires the children to divide them into measures of six-eighths, four-quarters, etc.

The child not only sees and thinks music, but it also feels it; for instance, a young lady sits at the piano and plays any beautiful thing she pleases; the children, eyes closed, listen intently and when they feel they have caught the rhythm they begin to clap their hands in unison with the music, strongly accenting the beat, clapping very softly on the unaccented notes and not at all on rests. This exercise is varied by accenting the time with the feet, preparing the child for marching, or even dancing. Further on in the system notes and even chords are struck on the piano, and the child with eyes closed or averted, calls the names of these with great facility.

Then there is hand and wrist culture. The child sits beside a table, resting one arm upon it, the fingers relaxed; the teacher counts "one, two, three," and the child performs a series of motions for attaining the right position for the keyboard. Then a bright little song is sung in unison, and the fingers have to respond when their names are called and rise and fall, rise and fall. An excellent device for octave practice is included and after using this for two or three terms, there will be no danger of cramping the muscles of the hand or wrist in preparing for striking an octave, when the child comes to the keyboard.

The movable keyboard is an important part of the outfit, each key being removed with ease from the board. The names of the keys being written upon them, the whole board can be disarranged and put together by the children.

Dept of Superintendence Meeting, Chattanooga, Tenn.

The indications are that there will be a large attendance from the New England and Eastern states, several parties having already made arrangements to take the trip. The Southern Railway, in connection with the Pennsylvania, will handle the entire New England delegation, and also New York state party, and New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and District of Columbia. The route will be via Washington, Salisbury, Asheville—"The Land of the Sky." Those who are thinking of making the trip should communicate at once with the undersigned, who will furnish full particulars regarding the trip. The round-trip rate, New York to Chattanooga, will be \$27.50. Through Pullman Car Service New York to Chattanooga.

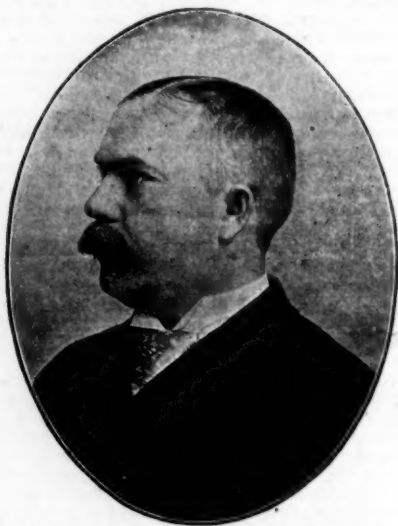
Boston, Mass.—C. D. Boyd, New England Agent.
 " " Geo. C. Daniels, Trav. Pass. Agent, 228
 Washington St.
 Philadelphia—John M. Beall, Dis'. Pass. Agent, 828
 Chestnut St.
 Baltimore—J. C. Horton, Pass. Agent, 201 East Balti-
 more, St.
 Washington—L. S. Brown, Gen. Agent, 705 15th St.
 N. W.
 New York—Alex. S. Thweatt, Eastern Pass. Agent, 271
 Broadway.

AGENCIES

New York and Chicago.

Last Meeting of Brooklyn Commissioners.

The last meeting of the Brooklyn board of education was held Jan. 25. The school board of Brooklyn will meet Feb. 9, to elect five delegates, who, with Pres. Swanstrom, will go to the central board of education. The business transacted at the meeting was principally of a routine character. The com-



J. Edward Swanstrom, Pres. Board of Education, Brooklyn, N. Y.

mittee appointed to investigate the boiler explosion at school No. 41 reported, absolving the engineer from blame, and recommending alterations in the exits of the building.

For the Education of Negroes.

A meeting will be held at the Madison Square Garden concert hall, Feb. 12, in the interests of the movement for negro industrial education. The speakers will include Ex-President Cleveland, Pres. Daniel C. Gilman, of Johns Hopkins; Pres. Charles Cuthbert Hall, of Union Theological seminary; Pres. ert C. Ogden, Booker T. Washington, of the Tuskegee institute, and the Rev. Dr. Frissell, of Hampton institute.

Mr. Hubbell, President of Trustees of City College.

Pres. Charles Bulckley Hubbell, of the board of education, has been unanimously re-elected president of the board of trustees of the City college and the Normal college. The board of education is ex-officio the board of trustees of these institutions.

Free Lectures in New York City.

The board of education has prepared a small volume, giving very fully the second course of free lectures at the various public school buildings, under the supervision of Dr. H. M. Leipziger. Dates, subjects, and speakers are given fully for the entire course.

Male Principals' Association of New York.

The newly-elected officers of the Male Principals' Association are: President, A. J. Whiteside; vice-president, Henry C. Litchfield; secretary, Edgar Vanderbilt; treasurer, William C. Hess.

Accused of Theft.

The parents of Katie O'Connor, a pupil in school No. 18, borough of the Bronx, have sent to Supt. Jasper a complaint alleging that a false accusation of theft was made against her by the principal, Miss Helen Gilbert.

The complaint says that the principal took Katie to the platform, and, in the presence of the other pupils, accused her of stealing a cloak. The principal, it is declared, attempted to make the girl say she was sorry she stole the cloak; but Katie positively denied that she took it. She was then ordered to put on her hat and leave the school. The mother of the girl says that Miss Gilbert has refused to take the child back.

Increase of Salary for Chicago Teachers.

The Chicago grade teachers have won the battle, and their salaries are to be raised. The board of education has decided that the funds are sufficient to start the desired increase at once. The proposition of Pres. Halle, of the board, is that, beginning with the coming fiscal year, each grade teacher shall receive an increase in salary of \$25. This shall continue every year

until the salary is \$1,000. For example, the teacher receiving \$600 this year will have \$625 next year, \$650 the year after, and so on until the \$1,000 limit is reached. The board will require an addition of \$54,000 for this purpose the first year and \$117,000 the next. This will supply the needs of 2,160 teachers. After the third year, the adjustment will go on without further strain on the finances.

Chicago Educational Association.

The following is a partial list of the local teachers' associations in and about Chicago. Letters have been written, asking for the names of officers, time and place of meeting, and any other data that the leaders desire given. Similar data of any other Illinois associations and clubs in which teachers are interested, are requested that the directory may be made complete:

Chicago Institute of Instruction.—President, W. E. Watt, Graham school; secretary, O. F. Milliken, Fallon school. Regular meeting on the third Saturday of each month at Handel hall.

The Committee of Sixty.—President, Wilbur S. Jackman, Chicago normal school; secretary, Mrs. M. L. T. Baker, Agassiz school. Regular meeting on the fourth Saturday of each month, in the board of education rooms, Schiller building.

Cook County Teachers' Association, O. T. Bright, the Woman's Temple.

Principals' Monthly Meeting, A. G. Lane, superintendent of schools.

Teachers' Federation, Miss Goggin.

Teachers' Club, Mrs. Ella F. Young.

George Howland Club, W. J. Bartholf, Humboldt school.

Pedagogical Club, University of Chicago, Dr. John Dewey.

Primary Teachers' Union, Kindergarten Club.

Prof. Jackman Remains in Chicago.

Prof. Wilbur S. Jackman, who, for the past eight years, has been at the head of the science department of what is now the Chicago normal school, has been asked by Pres. Jordan to take the chair of pedagogics in Stanford university at San Francisco, California. He has declined the call, although the salary offered (\$3,500) is a marked advance on his present income, and the work much easier than in the normal school. After carefully considering the matter, Mr. Jackman came to



W. S. Jackman, Chicago Normal School.

the conclusion that he preferred his work, to which he has become greatly attached, to entering upon new work in a strange field, even at an immediate advance to himself. This is the second offer of the kind he has refused. Some time ago he was asked to accept a position in the University of Buffalo, N. Y., at a salary of \$4,000. Prof. Jackman's attachment to Chicago is doubtless appreciated by all who take an interest in education in the vicinity.

Nine Lives Saved.

Chicago, Ill.—If it had not been for the swift aid of firemen nine girls, clerks for the Central School Supply House, on Canal street, would have flung themselves from third-story windows to the ground. Fire had started in the rear of the second floor, and the smoke almost strangled both firemen and girls before they reached the street.

Meeting of Schoolmasters' Club.

The next semi-annual meeting of the Schoolmasters' Club, of Illinois, will be held in the rooms of the board of education, Peoria, Ill., Feb. 4 and 5, 1898. The first session will begin at 8 P. M., Friday, Feb. 4. Topic: "How Shall We Teach Definite Relations of Quantity in the Elementary School?" Leader, Supt. W. W. Speer, of Chicago. Discussion, led by Prof. David Felmley, of Normal.

On Saturday morning, Feb. 5, Prof. F. H. Hall, of Jacksonville, will address the club. Topic: "Arithmetic as taught during the last twenty-five years. Desirable changes in matter and method."

J. H. Freeman, Pres., Springfield.
E. A. Fritter, Sec., Normal.

FIFTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

New-York Life Insurance Company.

OFFICE: 346 & 348 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

JANUARY 1, 1898.

ASSETS.

Real Estate.....	\$16,991,000	
Bonds and Stocks.....	113,239,751	
Bonds and Mortgages.....	41,082,422	
Loans secured by collaterals.....	4,507,367	
Premium Loans.....	9,089,498	
Cash in Office and in Banks and Trust Companies.....	10,243,984	
Interest and Rents due and accrued.....	1,486,648	
*Net amount of uncollected and deferred Premiums.....	4,053,771	
Total Assets.....		\$200,694,441

LIABILITIES.

Reserve, or value of outstanding Policies as per certificate of New York Insurance Department.....	\$164,956,079
Other Liabilities.....	\$2,366,331
Surplus Reserved Fund voluntarily set aside by the Company, which, with the reserve fund as calculated by the Insurance Department, will be the equivalent to a three per cent. reserve on all existing policies.....	\$16,195,926
Net Surplus after setting aside the above Surplus Reserved Fund.....	\$17,176,105

INCOME.

Total Premium Income.....	\$32,980,960	
Interest, Rents, etc.....	8,812,125	
Total Income.....		\$41,793,085

DISBURSEMENTS.

Death-Claims paid.....	\$9,669,596	
Endowments paid.....	2,919,618	
Annuities, Dividends, Surrender Values, etc.....	6,820,242	
Total paid policy-holders.....	\$19,409,456	
Commissions, Brokerages, and all other payments to Agents.....	4,308,620	
Home Office and Branch Office Salaries and Physicians' Fees.....	1,878,445	
Real Estate expenses, Taxes, Advertising and all other expenses.....	2,214,426	
Total Disbursements.....		\$27,810,947

New Policies Paid for during 1897, 63,708, insuring \$135,555,794.

Total number of Policies in force January 1, 1898, 332,958, insuring \$877,020,925.

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* Does not include any unreported first premiums on new issues. Policies are not reported in force unless the first premium has been paid in cash.

Meetings of Parents and Teachers.

Houston, Texas.—Supt. W. H. Kimbrough, who succeeded Mr. Sutton (at present professor of pedagogy in the University of Texas), recently presented the following arguments in behalf of the regular and systematic meetings of parents and teachers:

1. "Is it not certain that no harm could result from the personal acquaintance of parents with the teachers of the children?"
2. "Is it not certain that if the parents of every pupil could know the teacher personally, and discuss with him, from time to time, the progress of the pupil, his difficulties, his peculiarities, his health, his habits, and his disposition, the result would be highly beneficial to the pupil?"
3. "Is it not really strange that any parent can be satisfied to remain for days and weeks, and even months, an entire stranger to the person who has the control, instruction, and training of his little children?"

"Let it be understood, then, that the school concedes to the family the first place in educational work. The school does not seek to displace the family, or to usurp the functions of that institution, which is the chief support of civilization. The school is content to be the efficient helper of the family in the work of education. To be an efficient helper of the family, however, the school must come into close relations with the family. It must know what the family is doing, in order that it may know what it needs to add. The work of the school must be planned and executed with reference to the work already done, and that which is going forward in the family. In doing its work, furthermore, the school needs constantly to learn more and more of the child's disposition, tastes, habits, inherited tendencies, idiosyncrasies, and even abnormalities. The home, the mother's breast, is the principal repository of information of this kind. Without this information, the teacher gropes in the dark, and his best efforts may be misdirected."

Iceland: The Land of Universal Education.

Considering the extent of the country, the sparseness of population and the difficulties of intercommunication, the diffusion of knowledge in Iceland is astonishing, writes Miss Frances Graham French, in the latest report of the United States Commissioner of Education. In Reykjavik, and among the clergy in general, men of high literary culture are to be found, some of them scholars who would do credit to any seat of learning in Europe. A child of ten, who is unable to read, is not to be found from one end of the island to the other. A peasant understanding several languages is no rarity, and the amount of general information is quite noticeable.

Formerly all children in Iceland were taught by their parents or neighbors, now a few elementary schools have been established. Classical and general studies are pursued at a university at Reykjavik, which has about 100 students and seven professors. The general physician of the island, assisted by two medical men, gives lectures to medical students. Law students go to the university at Copenhagen. There is a flourishing academy, an agricultural college and four seminaries for young women on the island. Icelanders are found in almost every university of Europe, and in no country is the scholar held in more esteem. The Icelandic student devotes himself largely to languages and literature, to the neglect of science and mathematics. Women are admitted to the higher institutions of learning.

Schools are quite impracticable in the rural districts, owing to the long distance between the isolated farm houses, and children receive the rudiments of learning from their parents. This instruction is superintended by the parish clergyman, whose duty it is to examine candidates for confirmation, not only as to their religious knowledge, but also as to their proficiency in reading, writing and the first rules of arithmetic. Lately a system of circuit teachers has been organized. These teachers travel from place to place during the winter, remaining for several weeks at each centrally-located farm house, and teaching the children from all the surrounding farms within reach. They are supported by the people of their districts and receive a small grant from the Icelandic treasury. In 1894 these circuit teachers numbered 165, and they taught 3,280 children, the subjects being reading, writing, orthography, arithmetic, and religious instruction.

There were in 1894, 26 children's schools in towns, trading stations and villages, attended by 896 children. In addition to the subjects taught by the circuit teachers these schools teach geography, the rudiments of material science and Icelandic grammar. Some also teach history, Danish, English, singing, gymnastics, and swimming.

Tuition is free in all the higher schools and most of them provide free lodging for their pupils.

The pastors of Iceland refuse to give illiterates marriage. At seven years of age, says an Iceland, all children know how to read, write, and reckon. The long winter evenings in each house are given to reading, to traditional lore, and to indoor occupation, by which every child is trained to such handicrafts as the necessities of his position require. Landed proprietors are not only responsible for the education of their own children, but those of their servants and families who are their tenants.

Items of Live Interest.

It is not probable that the statement made in *The School Journal*, that "ninety-five per cent. of those entering on a business career fail to succeed," can be supported by registered facts, for no record is kept of either the successful or unsuccessful ones. The term "succeed," again, is variously interpreted; in mercantile usage it means those who attain to the possession of considerably more than the average quantity of wealth. Bradstreet is a pretty good authority, and he says ten or eleven per cent. fail annually in business; that in ten years one-third fail. The number, who, though not failing, give up one kind of business and take up another is not included in these figures. Of course lawyers, ministers, and physicians are not considered; only those in mercantile or business careers. The figures given in *The School Journal* are the highest usually given in business circles. It is commonly said in them that 85 to 95 per cent. fail in business.

Sedalia, Mo.—The design for the monument to be erected to the memory of Eugene Field by the school children of Missouri has been received. The base is of rough Missouri granite, six by seven feet, while the shaft is of polished granite, upon which rests a bronze figure of the dead poet. The cost will be about \$6,000. The monument is to be placed on the state university campus, at Columbia.

The Massachusetts state board of education has asked the legislature for authority to confer degrees upon graduates of the state normal schools who have completed the four years of study in these institutions.

Westfield, Mass.—Word has been received here of the death of Prof. John H. Haldeman. Prof. Haldeman was for twenty years principal of the department of observation in the state normal school here.

An authority states that seventy-five per cent. of the most famous American authors were born in New England parsonages. Among these may be mentioned Ralph Waldo Emerson, Oliver Wendell Holmes, James Russell Lowell, Harriet Beecher Stowe, and Elizabeth Stuart Phelps.

Van Wert, Ohio.—G. W. McGinnis, in reviewing the work of the year, says that a most important step has been taken in the matter of grading and promoting pupils. Each school is divided according to ability. Those who can do a large amount of work are permitted to pass on at such a rate as will secure good work. If a pupil shows more ability than his class he is permitted to leave it and pass to the next as soon as he shows that he can and will do the work of the advanced grade. On the other hand, if a pupil is promoted prematurely, or is in a high grade, and cannot do the work of the grade, he can drop to the grade below without losing more than a few weeks.

The enrollment of the Van Wert schools for the past year is 1,603; the monthly enrollment is 1,439, with an average daily attendance of 1,323.

The New York Life Insurance Company.

Interesting details of the business of the New York Life Insurance Company for 1897 are given in the fifty-third annual statement. The items of income from premiums and interest, and the payment to policy-holders in death-claims, endowments, annuities, dividends, and cash surrender values, will give an idea of the scope and significance of the company's activity. Life insurance is the best form of socialism extant—a system which provides for the needs of all through the love of each for his own.

In the New York Life over 330,000 persons are thus banded together, under contracts calling for \$875,000,000 at maturity, over \$200,000,000 of which is already in hand. It is about six years since President McCall assumed the direction of this great company, and his administration has been marked by great energy in securing new business, by the issue of an unrestricted policy combining unusual privileges to the insured, and by the utmost frankness in the publicity of details. The practical adoption of a three per cent. standard of reserve, on all policies, is significant of the conservatism of Mr. McCall's management.

Seekers after gold are often disappointed. Seekers after health take Hood's Sarsaparilla and find it meets every expectation.

THE SCHOOL JOURNAL

(Established 1870.) published weekly at \$2.50 per year, is a journal of education for school boards, superintendents, principals, and all teachers who desire to have a complete account of all the great movements in education. We publish THE TEACHERS' INSTITUTE, monthly, \$1 per year; THE PRIMARY SCHOOL, monthly, \$1 per year; EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS, monthly, \$1 per year, and OUR TIMES (Current Events), monthly, 30 cents per year.

E. L. KELLOGG & CO., 61 E. Ninth Street, New York.

Literary Notes.

In "Personal Glimpses of our New England Poets," in the "New England Magazine," Mr. Charles Akers relates in a delightful way many anecdotes of his personal intercourse with Lowell, Longfellow, Emerson, and Holmes. When a struggling young artist he was invited to visit Lowell in Cambridge, and it was through the latter's influence that Mr. Akers was able to gratify his desire to portray some notabilities and earn a living. "A sketch of the reception given by these men to a bothersome stranger," Mr. Akers says, "whom they could aid, but who was little likely to repay, cannot add to the knowledge of what they did, but may help to realize what they were." Reproductions from the artist's original portraits accompany the article. Warren F. Kellogg, 5 Park Square, Boston, Mass.

The craze which once existed for "pad" or "block" calendars seems to be nearly over. It is to be doubted whether the public ever took its daily homeopathic dose of literature as prescribed in this way, especially as the selections were as a rule entirely disconnected with the days or even the months for which they were used. No one will regret the practical disappearance of these of these literary monstrosities except possibly those men who found the little slips convenient for use as "shaving papers." Among the greatest novelties in calendars during the present season are transparencies, partly manufactured in Paris, which when hung in a window or before artificial light of any kind, display dainty pictures in colors.

On the 15th of February, "The Newspaper Magazine" will be issued from 105 West 39th street, New York. It will be an attempt to give to the reading public a journal that should become more popular than any other because it will contain more generous and timely literature. It will be devoted almost entirely to the publication of the best things that are appearing in the contemporaneous newspaper—and therefore it will draw its material from a very wide source. Hardly a day goes by that some newspaper writer in some part of this country does not furnish an article that finds no further light or permanency beyond the modest columns of the local journal. "The Newspaper Magazine" will be an attempt to corral the best thoughts of

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writers on miscellaneous subjects that are not found in the monthly periodicals. Deshler Welch is the editor.

The January issue of "The International Studio" covers a comprehensive field in art matters. Here are four supplements of an interesting character, five articles on artists with illustrations of their work, "The Art of Wood-Carving," by G. Frampton, a description of "A Small Country House," with floor plans and interiors, and the usual correspondence on studio matters from London, Edinburgh, Oxford, Glasgow, and other cities.

Interesting Notes.

Mark Twain and His Debts.

The "Publishers' Weekly" learns that Mark Twain has paid off three-fourths of the indebtedness of C. L. Webster & Co., the publishing firm of which he was a member. The creditors offered to settle on a fifty per cent. basis. Twenty-eight per cent. was realized from the assets. Presently Mr. Clemens brought the payments up to fifty per cent., and not long ago he paid twenty-five per cent. more. He is quoted as saying that it will be three years before he can publish another book, and possibly the remnant of his debts will hang on until then. Meanwhile, however, the books he has already written are working for him, some of them to very good purpose.—"Harper's Weekly."

The forty-sixth annual report of the Massachusetts Mutual Life Insurance Co., for the year ending December 31, 1897, shows receipts of \$4,707,353.25, and disbursements of \$3,111,880.11. The assets (market value) are \$20,342,647.01 and the liabilities \$18,584,354.09, leaving a surplus of \$1,758,292.92. It will thus be seen that the company is in a prosperous condition. The New York office at 258 Broadway is under the management of George J. Wight.

Julian Ralph on the Chinese.

The Chinese are truly a fine people; asleep, but not worse off. I never met in Asia or anywhere a single man who knows the Chinese and the Japanese well who does not say that physically, mentally, and morally the Chinese are superior to the Japanese. We must not judge the huge agglomeration of differing Chinamen by those we see here. These are all Kwangtung coolies, except the occasional tall, large-framed men of the more northerly provinces who come to us on diplomatic missions. The farther south you travel in China, the smaller, weaker, and less admirable do you find the people, so that in the far south, where the French were the first to begin the partitioning of China, they are no bigger than the Japanese, and nothing like as able. Our Cantonese have not proved bad visitors, yet they are not to be compared for physical merit, for shrewdness, commercial ability, refinement, or morality with their neighbors to the north, who in stature rise higher and higher, as if nature had planted them in terraces. The

Chinese, as a whole, present better material for the magical manipulation of progress than the Japanese seemed to offer forty years ago. They are a finer people than any other Asiatics, unless the people of India have to be excepted.—"Harper's Weekly."

Abolition of Slavery.

The question was asked recently when the colored slaves were emancipated in New Jersey. The first emancipation act was passed in 1804. It was a gradual emancipation, all slaves born after the passage of the act were held until they were twenty-one years of age. All over that age were held during life, and the estates of their owners made responsible for their care and keeping in sickness and old age. It is only a few years since the last slaves were freed by death. At the first census of the United States, taken in 1790, everyone of the states then existing, except Massachusetts (which then included Maine) had some slaves; but Vermont had only 19, and New Hampshire only 158. In 1800 slavery had ceased in Vermont, and only eight were left in New Hampshire. Vermont abolished slavery in 1777, by state law, before she had joined the Union. Pennsylvania passed a law in 1780 which

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It is a strengthening food and tonic, remarkable in its flesh-forming properties. It contains Cod-Liver Oil emulsified or partially digested, combined with the well-known and highly prized Hypophosphites of Lime and Soda, so that their potency is materially increased.

What Will It Do?

It will arrest loss of flesh and restore to a normal condition the infant, the child and the adult. It will enrich the blood of the anemic; will stop the cough, heal the irritation of the throat and lungs, and cure incipient consumption. We make this statement because the experience of twenty-five years has proven it in tens of thousands of cases.

Be sure you get SCOTT'S Emulsion, 50c. and \$1.00, all druggists.
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Pretty boxes and odors are used to sell such soaps as no one would touch if he saw them undisguised. Beware of a soap that depends on something outside of it.

Pears', the finest soap in the world is scented or not, as you wish; and the money is in the merchandise, not in the box.

All sorts of stores sell it, especially druggists; all sorts of people are using it.

in the selection of food care is exercised to secure the best. No attempt is made to disguise, by flavoring in cooking, the taste of decayed meat or vegetables. Why not this same care in the selection of Cod Liver Oil?

Peter Möller's Cod Liver Oil

is kept free from contamination and all impurities during process of manufacture—hence it is free from all disagreeable taste or smell so common in Cod Liver Oil.

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provided for the gradual emancipation of her slaves. In Massachusetts the supreme court declared that slavery was abolished by the act of adopting the new state constitution in 1780. Rhode Island by law gradually emancipated her slaves, and so did New York in 1799.

Our Mineral Wealth.

"The Engineering and Mining Journal" reports that the value of the total mineral and metal production of the United States for the year 1897 amounted to \$762,061,106, of which \$257,451,172 was for metals and \$504,609,934 for non-metals. These figures show a total increase of \$18,290,228 over 1896. The most prominent item in value was coal, the total being 194,500,000 short tons, or 3,000,000 tons more than in 1896. The United States has not only been the heaviest producer of gold, iron, steel, copper, lead, and zinc, but has also been a large exporter, sending abroad 128,300 tons of copper, \$55,000,000 worth of silver, nearly 200,000 tons of pig iron, and a large quantity of steel and manufactured iron products.

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Antikamnia Tablets have been tested and found superior to any of the many pain relievers now used in the treatment of Neuralgia, Sciatica, Acute Rheumatism, and Typhoid Fever; also in Headache and other Neuroses due to Irregularities of Menstruation. Administered in Asthma, Hay Fever, Influenza, La Grippe, and Allied Complaints, it secures the best results.

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Submarine Photography.

Captain Boiteux obtains a sufficient light from an incandescent lamp of the Bernstein system, 50 volts and 5 amperes, which is secured in a box on the top of the diver's helmet. The light is projected in a cone to a reflector placed in the rear part of the box, and then passes through a glass in the front part. The lamp may be fed by a dynamo or accumulator in a steam launch. The photographic apparatus consists of a detective camera (short focus) in a hermetically sealed metallic case. The case has glass windows corresponding to the objective and view-finder, and is carried in a box attached to the diving suit. The lens is operated by a screw through the watertight case.

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mated pretty well by the amount of gold
jewelry, plate, and trinkets presented at the
government mints to be melted up. Dur-
ing the period of extreme depression the
value of the metal thus purchased by the
government reached high figures, but in the
last year it has dwindled considerably.
Around about the holiday seasons the
number of pieces of jewelry sent to the
mints to be sold increases compared with
the dull seasons. Soon after the new year
a great deal of jewelry is generally sent to
the assay offices and mints for sale, a lot of
it coming from people who have received
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